

IMPROVING
the
SUPERVISION
of
INSTRUCTION

HAROLD SPEARS

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PRENTICE-HALL EDUCATION SERIES

Harold Spears, Editor

Improving THE SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

Harold Spears

ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT, PUBLIC SCHOOLS
SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA



NEW YORK
PRENTICE-HALL, INC.

Bureau	Ednl. Res. Research
DAVID H.	ING COLLEGE
Dated
Accs No	72 923

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70 FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK

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L. C. Cat. Card No.: 53-11530

First printing October, 1953
Second printing April, 1954
Third printing January, 1955

PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

To
Jen, Stephen, and David

Preface

CONCERN for the issues of supervision as faced daily on the job in public school operation has inspired this expression of ideas on the subject. Furthermore, teaching supervision of instruction has led me from time to time to feel that it was a more difficult course to handle than one in administration or curriculum. Hence, this particular study is one that I have wanted to do for some years.

Of all the members of the school family, the supervisor has stood out as holding the position least understood. In comparison, the work of the superintendent, the principal, or the teacher seems to be much more clearly defined. To what degree does this represent intentional flexibility of program in the supervisory position, and to what degree does it reflect uncertainty regarding the concept of supervision as a school function? This is typical of the questions that make this subject extremely intriguing.

As to the work of the principal, his responsibilities in administrative matters have been much more readily mastered than those in the supervision of the instructional program. How he may effect greater success as an instructional leader is a question that still challenges professional study, and that is representative of the problems to which attention is given in these pages.

This book represents a summary of current thought and practice in supervision at both the elementary and the secondary school levels. It includes the effort of county and state school officers, as well as that of local school districts. In-service training and curriculum planning are incorporated in the broadened concept of supervision as treated here.

The idea behind the book calls for an explanation much fuller than the customary short preface. Consequently, the scope of the subject is treated at length in the opening chapter, which represents the introduction of the reader to the 21 chapters that follow.

As indicated there, and throughout this story of the instructional leadership of America's schools, many people contributed to the account. Rather than attempting to pick out a group of most helpful helpers to list here, I have tried to express in person and by correspondence my sincere appreciation of the efforts of all these fine people.

HAROLD SPEARS

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Improving
THE SUPERVISION
OF INSTRUCTION

I

Supervision Looks Ahead

OF ALL the responsibilities of school operation, instructional supervision stands out as the one most discussed, yet least understood. In spite of the success that has been achieved, the administrative waterfront of American education is littered with the debris of supervisory ventures that failed to live out the storm, failed to reach the needs of classroom instruction. Some were stern and austere craft that were abandoned as unfit for the humanitarian purposes of modern supervision. Some were properly planned but neglected by their navigators.

Nevertheless, the missions have continued since the founding of the first American school, and at this very moment educational planners have the shores covered with blueprints as they eagerly construct new supervisory programs and remodel earlier ones in the continued attempt to conquer the unknowns of instructional improvement. They are encouraged by those who have successfully maneuvered their supervisory craft out beyond the shoals of theory.

Of all the responsibilities of school operation, supervision stands out as the one most in need of clarification. There is no greater challenge in the study of American education. It is an interesting period to consider the subject, for so many different things are happening and so many issues relative to supervisory practice have arisen.

Emphasis upon instruction. As noted by the school laws of some of the states, supervision is a broad term. It has been used down through the years in reference to the administrative or the fiscal function as well as to the instructional function. In this study, discussion is limited to the supervision of the instructional program.

It is indeed difficult to nail down to specifics supervision of instruction because both supervision and instruction are elusive terms. Supervision has always been entangled with administration as a school function, and instruction has long since overflowed the classroom. However, care has been taken not to wander off on every bypath that crosses the main highway leading to the supervisor's door.

The discussion covers supervision at both the elementary and the secondary school levels. As to suggestions for additional readings, a few selected references are included at the close of each chapter. There are no duplications from chapter to chapter, nor do these references duplicate those in the footnotes.

THE READER AND THE BOOK

Fact and fancy. This is written as a running account of the instructional supervision of America's schools. It is not a story of what might have been, or what should have been. It is one of what is, and of what seems to be coming. Upon a framework of fact are hung the principles and purposes of supervision, its hopes and its promises. Opinions, when injected, are not presented for their own sake. They find their rightful place as interpretations of the supervisory practices that are recorded.

To be at all effective in this field, both the practitioner of today and the planner for tomorrow need to review the factual record. By raising the issues as he sees them, and by interpreting them in the light of general practice, the writer can best enable the reader to apply practice and principle to his own school situation. This incorporation of the reader into the useful extension of the printed page is further encouraged by the inclusion of study suggestions and selected references at the close of each chapter.

Opinions of both recorder and reader should reflect the facts—the realities of the situation, and not merely their own fancies. An off-the-cuff opinion about supervision is easily obtainable from almost any teacher, administrator, or student of the subject, but it would mean precious little without considering the realities in the school situation that had influenced that opinion. The same is true of any phase of this broad subject. To venture an opinion about such matters as the amount of personnel needed in a program, the amount of co-operative planning that should be done, the percentage of the

principal's day that should be devoted to supervision, or the type of curriculum for a particular grade is dependent upon a clear knowledge of the facts in the school situation in question.

On the other hand, the treatment of supervision might be too factual, too objective. A mere compendium of what is taking place in supervision would mean little in itself. It might be accepted as a reference book, but it could not be classified as an analytical study of the subject. It has been the intention to build this story from the factual accounts of supervision and to tie these fragments together with interpretation. The account is founded on the practices of county, state, and local school systems.

The source of supply. It is not a simple matter to catch the true picture of school supervision today. First, it is a period of marked transition. Perhaps no field of school operation has played host to so many innovations in so short a time as has supervision. Consequently, current practice is quite elusive. Its many ramifications as well as its continuous movement suggest the difficulty of securing the actual image. The natural approach to the job was to turn to the centers of the movement. The facts as presented reflect these sources of information:

1. A survey of the 48 state school offices. Besides correspondence with these offices, the survey includes the examination of about 200 bulletins issued and supplied by the state departments of education.

2. A survey of the supervisory programs of 150 representative city and county school systems varying sufficiently in size and location to present a cross section of the national approach to supervision. This survey likewise included the examination of curriculum and instructional bulletins and guides developed in conjunction with programs of supervision.

3. Direct help from the United States Office of Education, and the National Education Association and its affiliated groups—sources of research and leadership in American education.

4. Direct help from professional associations of supervisors, including the national organization, the Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development, which enrolls almost 7,000 members.

5. Library research involving the examination of some 400 representative articles in education journals, as well as the books in the field.

In all of these surveys, the requests were not limited to activities labeled as supervision. In-service training and curriculum planning were included as features of the present concept of supervisory leadership.

In addition, the writer has naturally drawn upon his own experiences in the teaching profession, and upon those of his friends and colleagues. In a real sense he is an agent for all these others who have so kindly contributed the stories of their programs of instructional leadership. The account is written for supervisors, administrators, and teachers on the job, as well as those in the graduate school.

Throughout, the attempt has been made to show supervision as it is in the American public school system today, with analytical interpretations, as already noted. The examples from state systems, county systems, and local school districts have been chosen from the mass of material as representative of the supervisory provision commonly found, the program commonly carried out, the purposes behind the program, and the principles governing it.

THE PLAN OF ORGANIZATION

A cross section of practice. Of major concern are those who bear the responsibility for improving instruction. The book includes the work of the trustee and the layman, the chief state school officer and the legislator, the special supervisor and the principal, the local superintendent and the county superintendent, the city supervisor and the county supervisor, the teacher, and others. Their role here is the improvement of instruction. The account includes the variations in supervisory provision among states, among counties, and among local districts. It includes the variations of time as well as place. The interpretive aspects of the account respect the necessity of highlighting the issues that school supervision has faced and the conflicting ramifications of its present struggles.

The clarification that supervision needs cannot come from a mere discussion of conflicting theories or concepts. Instead the treatment must rest on the solid foundation of the account of the provision for supervision that exists, has existed, or might exist, in the school systems throughout the land. Theories must always be tempered with actualities.

Lean years and fat years. Back in 1921 there appeared a small volume called *Common Sense in School Supervision*. Charles Wagner,

the author, began his study with this somewhat apologetic statement: "About all the knowledge obtainable on this topic is a series of individual opinions, mostly the opinions of teachers who give expression to their dissatisfaction with supervision as they have experienced it. No statistical study appears to have been made at any time."¹

Today—three decades later—a new book on supervision need not open with an apology for a dearth of material. It might better begin with an explanation as to the reason for another study of the subject because so many have been made since Wagner presented his.

The editorial problem is not one of limited material; rather, it is one of abundance of both practice and opinion. At the middle of the century, almost 10,000 supervisors are reported in the nation's schools, supplementing the work of principals and superintendents in instructional improvement. They reflect organized programs of supervision in cities, counties, and states. Their efforts are professionally co-ordinated through a national supervisors' association and by means of twenty-odd strong state or regional associations. A continuous flow of yearbooks, periodicals, and bulletins attest to this earnest effort.

In the past three decades 30 or 40 major studies of instructional supervision have been published in book form, directed especially toward graduate study. The abundance of articles on the subject in educational periodicals is appalling. For instance, for the ten-year period between 1935 and 1945 alone as many as 278 articles are entered in *Education Index* under the subject heading, "Supervision and Supervisors." To grasp the true significance of this intensive interest and output in instructional improvement, one should rightfully add the entries dealing with curriculum planning and the in-service development of teachers. For supervision as a concept has long since shed its earlier shell that limited its movement to the classroom operation. It now moves in wider circles. It hobnobs with curriculum planning and in-service training.

Chapter sequence. It has seemed advisable to break the work into 22 parts. In brief, the plan of sequential organization of the remainder of the book is this:

1. The place of instructional supervision among the various functions in school operation. The attempt to distinguish between opera-

¹ Charles A. Wagner, *Common Sense in Supervision* (Milwaukee: The Bruce Publishing Co., 1921), p. 7.

tional phases, such as supervision and administration. The question of securing returns upon the investment in supervision without selling out to the efficiency principle. (Chapter 2.)

2. The rise of instructional supervision as an accepted feature of school operation calling for the provision of personnel and program. The gradual movement away from a narrow concept of the supervisory act. The shift in responsibility for supervision from layman to professional worker. (Chapter 3.)

3. The period of intensive interest in classroom operation, in which supervision's sole responsibility was improvement of teaching by directing attention to the individual teacher. (Chapter 4.)

4. The current extension of the concept of supervision. In a sense, an introductory chapter to the remainder of the book, determining the tone of the present period. (Chapter 5.)

5. The current interest in human relationships, co-operative endeavor, and democratic school operation. The atmosphere within which the supervisory act must take place. The emphasis upon process, upon the way of working. (Chapter 6.)

6. The organization for a good supervisory job. The planning that goes into a program of instructional improvement. The co-ordination of the various efforts that make up the total supervisory program. (Chapters 7 and 8.)

7. The responsibility for supervision, as represented by four different positions or offices—the supervisory position, the principalship, the state department, and the county school office. A review of the work of the four, including a discussion of the qualifications for positions. Emphasis here is upon the actual supervisory work that is found in representative school systems of the country—state, local, and county. (Chapters 9, 10, 11, and 12.)

8. Concentration upon the supervision of the teaching-learning situation in the classroom. Emphasis upon methods of instruction at both the elementary and secondary levels. (Chapters 13, 14, and 15.)

9. Curriculum planning as the center of attention in school supervision today. Examples of the approach made by various school systems. Relationships to other phases of the supervisory program. (Chapter 16.)

10. In-service training as the more recent attempt of supervision to up-grade teaching. The relationship of in-service to supervision,

and to curriculum planning. The incentives commonly injected into in-service programs. Specific examples of in-service programs. (Chapters 17 and 18.)

11. The professional movement of supervisors. Their own in-service development through their professional associations, state and national. (Chapter 19.)

12. Evaluation as a responsibility of supervision in carrying out a complete program of instructional improvement. The attempts to evaluate teaching effort. The measurement of instruction as advanced by the testing movement. (Chapters 20 and 21.)

13. The closing of the account. (Chapter 22.)

Just enough of the history of school supervision needs to be included to account for the present situation. One who would remodel his house needs to see the original blueprint. This reference to the past is limited mainly to Chapters 2, 3, and 4.

THE USE OF THE BOOK

Those who read this book will include supervisors, administrators, and teachers. Those who read it in connection with a college graduate course will probably find the course name to be one of these:

Supervision of Instruction,
The Techniques of Supervision,
School Supervision,
Instructional Supervision,
The Functions of Supervision,
The Theory and Practice of Supervision, or
The Program of Supervision.

In any case, the title of the course will imply three things: (1) that instruction needs to undergo continuous study and improvement, because of the going and coming of teachers as well as the going and coming of the times, (2) that somebody is responsible for this study and improvement, and (3) that those responsible wish help with their program of action. What is done in this connection is commonly known as the supervisory program. And the responsibility of leadership is commonly referred to as the responsibility for supervision—or instructional leadership.

These are the two main characters in this story: the supervisory

program and the supervisor—the one responsible for supervision. The latter role continues to be played by many different parties, with some differences of opinion as to the limitation of parts. The very existence of a special course in this field indicates that it has long since been accepted that there is a noticeable distinction between supervision and other aspects of school operation; for instance, a marked distinction between administration and supervision, and between supervision and curriculum. This is taken for granted, and some attention is given here to the clarification of such differences. Any who would question the existence of a distinction must then answer the question: how can a college offer different courses in supervision, administration, and curriculum unless some boundaries can be drawn? Those in the field who read the book will be aware of these distinctions in positions, the titles of their own posts attesting to these differences.

For the sake of common orientation, it is well to establish at once the limits of the subject. Even at the risk of seeming a bit dogmatic or overpedagogical in the approach, it seems expedient to include this simplified road map bearing landmarks and leading directly through the subject. The early posting of definitions runs the danger of bringing on a round of fire from some academic sharpshooter, to whom a definition too neatly turned may well act as a target. However, early distinctions in terms and topics may avoid later confusion.

THE LEARNING SITUATION

Methods of instruction. The undergraduate takes courses in the methods or techniques of classroom instruction, the classroom in such case being seen through the eyes of the teacher. One might likewise take a graduate course in classroom methods, but it would not be a course in supervision. For supervision goes far beyond the actual techniques of teaching. The one who studies the subject must have the chance to see the classroom through the eyes of the one responsible for supervision, the one responsible for the effectiveness of the instruction. Many of the readers will be experienced school people out on the job, bearing the responsibility for instructional leadership. These school officials will be well aware of this distinction.

Methods of teaching have their rightful place in the present treat-

ment, but only as one aspect of the total concern for the improvement of instruction. Although the methods course emphasizes primarily what is good instruction, the study of supervision includes not only what is good instruction but also how those responsible for supervision can achieve good instruction in the classrooms of others. For those who supervise carry definite responsibilities for instructional improvement. This account includes a review of the supervisory efforts of typical local, state, and county school systems today. What supervisors do and how they do it are of mutual concern.

To assure that methods of instruction as such will not get lost here in the structural features of the program of supervision, two chapters emphasizing methods alone are included. One is slanted toward the secondary school situation (Chapter 14), and the other toward the elementary school (Chapter 15). These stand as a sampling of modern instructional practice for one who would lead teachers in the study of their own classroom procedures. These two are preceded by a chapter dealing with the approach to classroom supervision (Chapter 13). In Chapter 3 the earlier period of classroom inspection is reviewed. To give more direct attention to instructional techniques than this would be to divert this study from its true course as a study of supervision. It must be assumed that those in positions of instructional leadership have first distinguished themselves as good teachers, familiar with good instructional techniques. The one who lacks such background can turn to methods courses for help.

Classroom instruction. For some time now it has been common for those who treat supervision to speak of *the learning situation* as the center of such attention. This is somewhat in contrast to the more limiting reference to *the classroom situation*, which punctuated the pages of the early books in this field. It represents the recognition that a so-called learning situation is not limited to classrooms alone, but may be found in any place where teachers are working with their pupils. This emphasis upon out-of-classroom instructional situations need not act as a deterrent to the consideration of the classroom program.

As a rough estimate of instructional practice throughout the land, at least four fifths of the time that teachers spend with their pupils is passed in the classroom. Consequently, the influence that they

exert upon the development of these pupils will be exerted for the most part in the classroom. For this reason it seems proper that a major influence of supervision must be upon the classroom instructional program. As revealed in the chapter headings, the supervisory program today is a broad one, influenced by many line-and-staff positions; but this breadth still finds its test in the teacher-pupil setting, one which for the most part is a classroom setting.

Curriculum planning. A great many varied activities make up the current conception of the supervisory program. As the boundaries of the earlier observation-of-classroom idea of supervision have been extended, they now seem to wander in and out of all the fields of school endeavor that have anything to do with the instructional situation. Some of these endeavors that have more commonly been brought under the banner of supervision are:

- (1) curriculum development,
- (2) the selection of instructional materials, and
- (3) the program of in-service training.

There is no point of turning back from this broadened concept. Supervision is going to continue to integrate curriculum, instructional materials, teacher development, and instructional effort. Increasing emphasis has been placed upon all types of activities through which teachers may develop. It is to be recognized that the one who supervises does not spend all of his time in the classrooms. In spite of the importance of working with teachers in the actual teacher-pupil learning situation, there are many other valuable approaches to instructional improvement. In treating these other divisions of the subject, an attempt has been made not to wander off behind some Pied Piper who ends his hejira on a lofty plateau far removed from the give-and-take of a typical instructional setting. The study as undertaken here includes those activities of instructional bearing that are all or in part instigated and handled by those responsible for supervision.

In recent years curriculum planning has provided supervision with an honorable retreat from its early advance into classroom inspection. This shift in attention to the larger learning situation has taken the strain off the teacher by turning him to co-operative curriculum development. Curriculum planning is a field of study in itself. Its treatment here will include basic principles, some specific examples

of the merger of curriculum development and supervision, and general suggestions for approaching such a program on the local and state levels.

The group enterprise. In recent years, writers and speakers in the field of teacher education have given much consideration to democratic supervision, to human relationships, to co-operative endeavor—in short, to the process of working together for a common purpose. The absence of the words democratic and co-operative in the chapter titles is not an indication of unconcern on the part of the writer. Instead, their absence reflects a point of view regarding the proper respect for this trend in school operation. It is felt that the treatment of the working relationships of a group of school people takes on meaning when handled in connection with the actual school endeavor in which they are drawn together, and consequently that discussion in the abstract of how people ought to work together is rather useless in comparison.

Curriculum planning, workshops, in-service training, classroom supervision, faculty meetings, and similar endeavors that bring teachers and supervisors together act as the focus of attention in the book, the relationships of the participants coming in naturally for appropriate consideration. The democratic way of carrying on school supervision should find its proper meaning and interpretation through the thorough treatment of those matters that actually comprise supervisory acts. If in some quarters today there has been a tendency for supervision to lose itself in the theoretical discussion of group processes, perhaps it isn't too surprising. Flight into space by some form of vehicle is an age-old dream of man.

AS TO TERMINOLOGY

The word "supervision." In some educational circles of late it has been almost sacrilegious to use the term supervision in connection with the school official's responsibility to look in on the teacher's classroom operation. It was implied that supervision as a term had disqualified itself in its earlier role of directing and ordering and should be ostracized in the school family where there is mutual respect for ideas and rights.

If injudicious action of earlier school administration brought to the term supervision a shady connotation, there is no reason why proper supervisory action today cannot remove such stigmatization

from the term. Here we use the term freely from the front cover of the book on through the last page. Nor is there any reason to apologize for it by always prefacing the term with the descriptive adjective democratic, as though supervision were not democratic unless so labeled.

The profession has found it easier to discard terms and coin new ones than to bring back into line meanings that had gone astray because of misuse through misunderstanding. Supervision, however, represents a noble principle, based in the American concern for the educational rights and welfare of each child, and consequently should so be retained and respected.

Supervisor and principal. At times writers in this field have followed the practice of using the term supervisor for the one carrying out the responsibility of supervision, whether it be the principal of the school or the worker bearing the title or the full-time duty of supervisor. In the present treatment a distinction will be made between these two positions when it seems advisable, the term supervisor referring to those who are designated by appointment as such, and the term principal designating those holding a position so named.

It is recognized that what is good classroom instruction would be the same for both workers; that the principles of supervision hold true for both; and that where both are operating, there would not be two separate and unrelated programs of instructional improvement. However, a treatment of the subject of supervision must include adequate consideration of the technical aspects of school organization and operation, which in turn calls for a clear distinction between the various workers who carry responsibility for instructional leadership. For instance, there will be occasion to discuss the relationship of the principal's position to that of the supervisor who moves in and out of his school.

On the other hand, these distinctions in positions should not be carried to extremes. It is well known that in any large school organization the one who has a full-time appointment as supervisor may in many cases bear some other title such as co-ordinator or director. However, these titles usually reflect variation in salary levels and responsibilities, rather than variations in supervisory function. Consequently, the term supervisor is used to include all such staff officers whose position reflects major responsibility for working with teachers in the improvement of instruction.

THE ISSUES OF SUPERVISION

There is danger of raising supervisory sights so far above the mechanics of classroom operation that the only view available will be one of the clouds. It behooves the school worker to be idealistic in his endeavor, to the extent of ever reaching for improved school conditions, but at the same time to be realistic, ever cognizant of the actual setting in which such improvement must take place. The chapter divisions, as well as the treatment therein, are set up with this dualism in mind. It is when theory is tested by practice that the issues of education present themselves. There is no attempt to deny these controversies a place in this study.

Evaluation of instruction. For instance, the evaluation of teaching was not barred from inclusion on the ground that the topic could not be reconciled with a modern democratic theory of the supervisory function. Instead, the topic was included on the practical ground that in American school operation today, from coast to coast, a combination of factors has developed that places upon school administration a greater responsibility than ever before to account to the taxpayer for the classroom effectiveness of the teaching effort. The extension of teacher tenure and mounting salary accounts are among these factors that deny school supervision the chance to run away from the evaluation of instruction.

The evaluation of teacher effort is included with no preconceived notions of what is right or wrong. It represents an issue in school operation that invites discussion—that cannot be omitted in a comprehensive treatment of supervision. It is planned that the total content of the book will represent a proper balance between theory and practice, between what might be and what is. *The value of this work lies not so much in what is included here as in the thought, discussion, and endeavor that are aroused by what is included.*

In being true to the subject, the writer cannot exclude topics that are controversial in nature. Only by including them and thus admitting that such issues exist can he give the reader the chance to weigh the facts and arrive at conclusions satisfactory to his own use.

There are some deep-seated, unreconciled issues in the field of supervision that need to be brought out into the light for examination. They need to be considered by any group professing to study supervision. A course in supervision cannot be limited to an ac-

cepted philosophy, for each who supervises must eventually arrive at his own philosophy. Any proposal must be tested out on the front—in the everyday operation of the school systems represented by those in the course.

THE HORNS OF THE DILEMMA

A treatment of supervision faces two dangers, both of which must be fully appreciated by both author and reader if they are to be avoided. It cannot be a simple statement of what to do. It must, of course, involve things to do, but it cannot go directly to that end. It must arrive at that point through such more nebulous subjects as human relationships, the processes by which people accomplish things, the provision of personnel, the variability of school settings, and similar conditions surrounding school operation. But therein lies one of the dangers. It is so easy to get lost on one of these byways—so easy to lose the confidence of the reader who, as a practical school operator, wants to be shown how to go about the job of supervising instruction.

The writer has been most aware of the two extreme dangers in this study—at one end the generalization about human relationships and group processes, and at the other the highly technical directive about supervising, with little regard for the human factor or the varied conditions from school to school. In the chapters that follow, there is a lot said about the democratic relationships of school personnel, without neglecting to continue the treatment on into the supervisory activities themselves. There are plenty of lists of things to do, without the stamp of standardization.

THE RESPONSIBILITY FOR SUPERVISION

Of major concern in any study of supervision is the question of responsibility. School administration in a sense represents a stewardship entrusted by the people. And somewhere within this framework, instructional supervision stems off of the main trunk as a special function. It is a phase of the general supervision of the schools. As pointed out by the Research Division of the National Education Association:

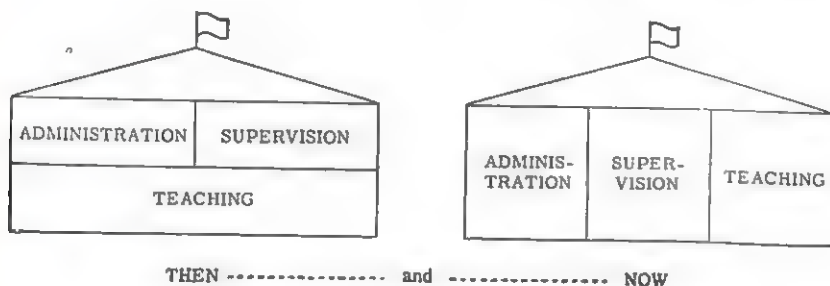
General supervision of the schools is specified as a function of city superintendents, by law, in relatively few states. Most of these provisions contain the qualification that the city superintendent's general supervision

of the schools is to be under the direction and control of the schoolboard.

In the other states the power of general supervision is delegated to the schoolboard; the authority of the city superintendent depends upon how much or how little of its authority the schoolboard delegates to him.

This situation does not prevail for county superintendents generally, even considering only the states which have county boards. In practically every statutory enumeration of powers and duties of the county superintendent the statement is included that he shall have general supervision of the schools under his jurisdiction.²

The reluctance of the layman to relinquish to school personnel the responsibility for instructional supervision will be noted in the discussions. Also to be considered is the question of the amount of this responsibility that the line officer delegates to the staff officer. A



far too simple concept of the school organization has pictured administration and supervision as two separate chambers, side by side on the upper floor, with the classroom below on the ground level.

The early diagram has been scrapped in favor of a co-operative concept, which emphasizes democratic interaction of all three functions, with levels of operation de-emphasized. As is to be treated at length, this shift in theory presents some practical problems with respect to judging the effectiveness of instruction.

WHAT IS SUPERVISION?

It may seem amiss to close this introductory chapter without a definition of the subject at hand. Actually, to attempt to define supervision at the beginning of this study would be to get the cart before the horse. Better to leave it to the reader, hoping that with the completion of the book he can carry away a working concept of

² National Education Association, "Legal Status of the School Superintendent," *Research Bulletin*, 39:3 (October, 1951), p. 121.

supervision suitable to his needs. At this point it seems appropriate to list a few of the statements that have come from others. These statements come directly from those who are working in the field of supervision.

1. Supervision is the process of bringing about improvement in instruction by working with people who are working with pupils. Supervision is a process of stimulating growth and a means of helping teachers to help themselves. The supervisory program is one of instructional improvement.³

2. The purpose of supervision is to facilitate learning by pupils. Adequate supervision, therefore, is concerned with making adequate provision for all of the conditions which are essential to effective learning through effective teaching.⁴

3. We as supervisors have generally accepted the principle that the chief function of supervision is to help improve the learning situation for children; that supervision is a service activity that exists only to help teachers do their jobs better.⁵

4. The term supervision is used to describe those activities which are primarily and directly concerned with studying and improving the conditions which surround the learning and growth of pupils and teachers.⁶

5. Good supervision is a process of releasing energies of people in creative ways to solve individual and common problems.⁷

The Department of Elementary School Principals, of the National Education Association, has defined supervision as a four-point program:

1. The appraisal of specific learning situations to ascertain the needs of children and the efficiency of instruction.

2. Technical service to teachers in the form of instructional aids, specific suggestions for the improvement of instruction, and assistance in pupil diagnosis and measurement.

3. Research for the purpose of curriculum construction and revision, and for the improvement of materials, techniques, and methods of instruction.

³ Texas Education Agency, *Work-Conference on Educational Leadership and Supervision* (Austin: the Agency, 1949), p. 49.

⁴ Arkansas State Department of Education, Division of Instruction, *Guide to Effective Elementary School Supervision* (Little Rock: the Department, no date), p. 1.

⁵ Texas Education Agency, Curriculum Division, *Supervisor's Exchange* (Austin: the Agency, March, 1951), p. 1.

⁶ Sam H. Moorer, *Supervision: the Keystone to Educational Progress* (Tallahassee: Florida State Department of Education, 1952), p. 1.

⁷ Jane Franserh, *Learning to Supervise Schools* (Washington, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, Circular 289), p. 3.

4. Professional leadership of and cooperation with teachers through individual and group conferences, through stimulation to further professional study, and through cooperative development of some program of in-service education.⁸

In this sampling of supervisory guideposts are found such key ideas as stimulating growth, giving service, helping teachers, improving instruction, facilitating learning, releasing energies, solving teaching problems creatively, appraising learning situations, providing instructional aids, improving curriculum, and developing in-service education.

In the search for the ways to do the job in the pages to follow will be found the emphasis upon co-operation. And we are to be reminded that the story of American school supervision does not begin with co-operation and democratic action; that's where it arrives with proper guidance. And it will be noted from time to time that supervision is something more than a co-operative group process—more than the theory of democratic participation, as important as that is. In the end, supervision will be somewhat different for each one who supervises, for each one who is supervised.

THE CONTROL OF TERMINOLOGY

Educational leadership is in danger of being swindled by too many weasel words picked up on the open markets of verbalism. It needs to appreciate the fact that the educator's vocabulary means nothing unless it is tested in school operation. To talk a good school program is much easier than to do a good school program. Undeniably, the fog of confusion and uncertainty in the realm of instructional leadership today is one of terminology as well as concept. It can best be dispelled by action, not by more words. Inasmuch as supervisors, administrators, and college instructors have greater access to regional, state, and national conferences than teachers, they face the danger of picking up a school vocabulary that is actually somewhat foreign to teachers.

At times, the graduate school neophyte, in listening to discussions or presentations, is hesitant to pry into meanings lest he expose either an ignorance of or a reluctance to accept the thing that seems

⁸ Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, *The Elementary School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, Twenty-seventh Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1948), p. 104.

to be preferred. He becomes conditioned to the terminology and in turn faces the danger of becoming a versatile linguist without much actual instructional know-how. For instance, he learns early that he should respect the *needs, interests, and abilities* of the individual child. He may go through a long period of professing this in his graduate papers and in open discussions without ever having to interpret it in terms of actual teaching acts in the classroom.

As is the case of the other words and phrases in his expanding vocabulary, it is a satisfying concept. He may not realize that the phrase has become such a cliché in our language that it invariably appears as "needs, interests, and abilities"; not as "abilities, needs, and interests"; nor as "interests, needs, and abilities." And why the phrase contains three components rather than two or four is difficult to determine. The use of the expression gives him status with himself, for its use implies that there are some who do not respect these differences among school children and that he is not among them. He is on the right side. Thus—with himself—he achieves professional status through language alone.

Another such expression is that the curriculum is all of the things that children do under the direction of teachers. A noble sentiment in itself, the expression runs the danger of becoming just that, with its implementation much more restricted than its utterance. This follow-the-leader tendency is again noted in curriculum terminology. For years, instructional leaders talked among themselves apparently most understandingly through the terms integration and correlation. But as time went on, and the leadership was pressed for practical applications, it is to be noted that the term integration lost even its verbal standing. As a curriculum concept it had been much more useful to communication than to classroom practice.

Supervisory leadership faces the challenge of specific conditions, of reality, of what to do in this and that situation. It faces the challenge of underwriting our terminology with actual school practice. This does not mean directives. It means getting down to the teachers' problems through sound co-operative procedures, resulting in common understanding and sound standards. There is every evidence that school leadership is doing that, as will be discussed in the chapters that follow.

A second danger faced by instructional leadership is that of over-emphasis upon what might be wrong with the school. This in a

sense is related to the matter just discussed, for in part it reflects the difficulty of implementing ideas. Too often, how schools operate is more popular as a topic than how they should operate. Too often, what is wrong is more engrossing than what is right. There is nothing gained by wallowing in the errors of the past. The challenge is to find the effective practices for today.

Again, the graduate student may become so conditioned to emotions into the why of school change, he has little reserve energy for struggling on beyond into the region of how. This reflects in part the fact that the spirit of a revival meeting is so often judged by the amount of energy expended at the time, rather than by what the converts do to change things after the gathering breaks up. For instance, to confess our authoritarian sins at the altar of democratic school practice may be highly exhilarating in itself. The reader who is out in the schools tussling with the daily problems of instructional leadership will be more interested in what is right about school procedures than in what is wrong.

This book is an invitation for supervisory leadership to avoid generalities and get down to specifics. Such promising concepts as curriculum planning and in-service training must be dissected for their rich inherent values. They cannot be tossed around in generalities as though they were panaceas for every problem of a classroom teacher, regardless of whether such trouble is an unruly child, a sprawling and uncontrollable unit, limited control, an overcrowded classroom, or a shortage of suitable books. As to the nature of the child, it needs to stand high in every supervisory program, but the matter demands more intensive treatment than a national pledge to needs, interests, and abilities.

As we explore the ramifications of supervision, we do so in an attempt to find the basic features of the cause-and-effect relationship between good supervision and good instruction. To find that relationship is the problem of the individual worker in the field. It is certain that many elements, some of them abstract and intangible, influence the situation. But at the heart of the process must be a cause-and-effect relation that stimulates the search.

2

Supervision's Place in School Operation

BORN in the one-room school of Colonial New England, and reared in the American tradition of strict classroom management, school supervision today stands apologetically on the green carpet of democratic school administration. Deprived of its weapons of oppression, it awaits further cross-examination and clarification of assignment. Once a highly specialized classroom operator, supervision is now being asked to assume a wide variety of responsibilities, many of which seem to be outside the classroom. There is no doubt that this is a period of transition, characterized by a jockeying for new relationships.

Working relationships. As will be treated at length in later chapters, in this period there is bound to be a lot said and written about supervision's relationship to the teacher. A lot has already been said and written. The American nation, on all of its social and institutional fronts, is highly sensitive about human relationships, and the assignment of functions to the supervisory program will certainly reflect this general condition.

In fact, there is danger that this concern will be so dominant that there will be neglect of clarification of supervision's relationship to administration. It is just as essential now to clarify this point as it ever was in school operation—in fact, more so because of the multitude of supervisory workers that today run in and out of the lives and classrooms of teachers. It is essential to clarify this relationship in spite of the fact that there is a noticeable tendency in some professional circles to mark as contraband anything that looks like a chart of school organization.

It is well to preface this chapter with the statement that the author

is not interested in a return to a mechanistic conception of school operation, nor an administrative chart that freezes the personnel into cog-like relationships to each other. We seek democratic school operation, but in the search must not fear to speak of responsibilities and relationship of positions.

This working relationship cannot be disposed of with the simple assumption that supervision is the frosting on the administrative cake, or that it is going to be the great democrat that runs around co-ordinating and co-operating while administration is left at the desk to execute the dirtier jobs in school management.

Nor is there reason to run from a discussion of this matter as though the democratic theory of school administration has ostracized any consideration of the more mechanical aspects of school operation. Just as surely as a state constitution sets forth the basis of a program of public education, just as surely as state legislation and local school board policy further define limits of operation, and just as surely as school administration extends such activity in working out operational procedures, so must the account be reviewed from time to time. A comprehensive study of school supervision will not be complete without a discussion of the mechanics that are treated in the remainder of this chapter. The discussion is arranged around these three aspects of the subject:

- (1) the line-and-staff principle of school organization,
- (2) the relationship of administration and supervision, and
- (3) the concern for democracy in school affairs.

FORMING THE LINE AND THE STAFF

The simple line organization. In the case of the small American community, school organization is quite simple. Subject to the board of education or the trustee, the superintendent has direct control of the entire operation, the teachers reporting directly to him, and usually having personal contact with him daily. There is often a principal in this arrangement; but because his administrative duties are usually in addition to a full teaching load, and because he is usually officed near the superintendent, organizational relationships call for no fancy theories of operation. This is true of the small school system even when the program is housed in more than one building and with more than one principal. This operational struc-

ture has been known as the *line organization*, there being a direct single line of authority and responsibility between the superintendent and the teachers (Figure 1).

This is the simplest form of organizational structure, its straight-line responsibility being so commonly accepted there is hardly ever any mention of the pattern by those schools that operate within it. This reflects the wholesome tendency to de-emphasize operational mechanics. It is taken for granted that the teacher goes directly to the superintendent's office in matters ranging from salary adjustment on over to approval of a new textbook, and in turn that the superin-

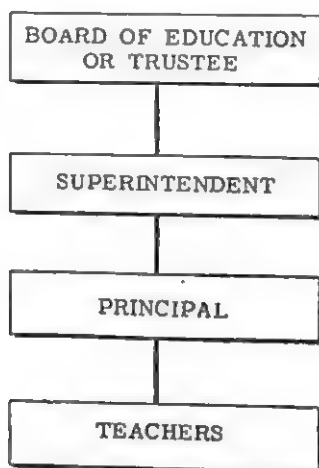


Figure 1. Line Organization in School Operation, as Used Earlier in This Century.

tendent goes into the teacher's classroom to supervise instructional procedures. The principal finds his important place in the operation without a chart to direct him. The part the principal plays in this small school system is dependent upon the willingness of the superintendent to delegate responsibility.

The line-and-staff organization in industry. Not so with the large school systems. Just as soon as they began to outgrow the superintendent-sole-manager pattern of the last century, they looked around for an organizational scheme that would ease their growing pains. American industry had already faced a similar problem of expansion by reconverting the old line pattern into a more complicated structural pattern known as the line-and-staff organization. To the original

basic line of vertical authority were appended some horizontal lines on which to hang staff positions, or even staff departments, which were to serve the efficiency of operation. This branching of the original trunk line into a more complicated mosaic of positions is seen in Figure 2. The direct line of authority was still referred to as the line, and the service positions as the staff. This growth and

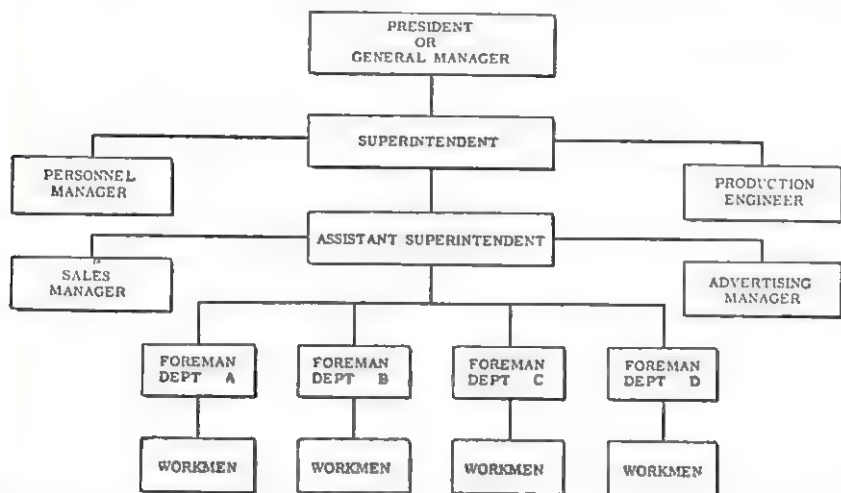


Figure 2. Line-and-Staff Organization in Industry. A partial sampling of typical line and staff positions.

development of industrial organization has been described by one authority in this statement:

Industrial leaders have recognized, as their companies grew from simple to complex organizations, that a small number of executives could not personally assume direct responsibility for all functions such as research, planning, distribution, public relations, industrial relations, and the many other varied activities. Therefore, one of the first moves toward reorganization as a company grew in size and complexity was to appoint assistants to executives. Specific advisory responsibilities were delegated to these assistants.

Executive and general foremen retained supervisory authority and control over the activities of the personnel of their particular department. They were the co-ordinating force that worked toward the preservation of harmony and good personnel relations between the workmen and the special executive assistants. These assistants frequently carried the title of process engineer, design engineer, industrial engineer, or budget officer. As the activities of these assistants increased, other personnel were added

to assist in these activities. Eventually, the work centering around a special assistant was organized into a department which was known as a *staff* department, supplementing the *line* organization of the enterprise.¹

The line-and-staff in school operation. The activity of the larger school systems—city, county, or district—has reflected the economic system's principle of division of labor and its refinement, specialization. It is inconceivable that these systems of public education could have developed as they did, parallel to the growth of big business, without efficiency as one of the keynotes of operation.

This story of the parallel growth in a school organization might be explained in this manner: The board of education recognized that the superintendent and his principals could not personally assume direct responsibility for all of the normal functions of administration and supervision, such as teacher recruitment, classroom supervision, research, curriculum development, selection of materials and equipment, salary co-ordination, and the other many and varied activities. The proper extension of school services and functions, as well as the management of those already established, demanded new departments and staff members.

Here as in business and military operation, the core structure was the line of authority as the trunk, the branches growing out from time to time to support staff positions or entire staff departments that were to serve and abet this original vertical arrangement of a school with a chief administrator at one extremity and the teacher and her group of children at the other. (See Figure 3.) Extreme emphasis upon structural patterns may have reflected in part the influence of business leaders serving on boards of education.

The records of the profession reveal much concern for measures of efficiency early this century. One Aaron Gove in 1900 spoke out at a National Education Association meeting for a superintendency based upon the plan of a corporation, and looked longingly at the army as a model of efficiency. And as schools expanded, in 1917 Theisen pleaded for more special staff members in school administration and wrote that only in the field of business is the expert to be found working under the most favorable conditions. He even recommended that the head of the schools might well be chairman

¹ By permission from *Industrial Organization and Management*, by Laurence L. Bethel and others. Copyright, 1945. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

of the board as was the case with the Pennsylvania Railroad System.²

The basic principle of the line-and-staff organization is that the functions performed by the staff members are services of a specialized and contributory nature, and are apart from the line operation down which flows the authority and the main responsibility.

The board of education holds the superintendent responsible for the effectiveness of the program in general, and the principal is held accountable for his school. Perhaps the line-and-staff today is more

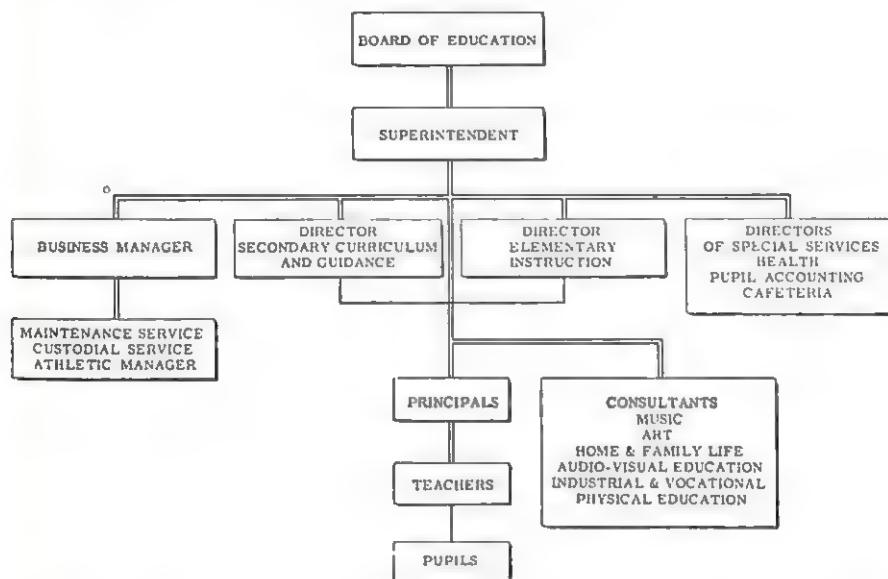


Figure 3. Organizational Relationships in the Galveston, Texas, Public Schools.

concerned about responsibility than about authority. The authority is delegated more and more among a greater number of people, marking it as a co-operative endeavor. To use the talents and ideas of the greater number is the democratic thing to do.

Little reference is made today to line-and-staff either in the professional literature or at the educational conference, and rightly so. This reflects the general tendency in school operation to center attention upon the education of the pupils rather than upon the manipulation of the staff.

²Ward I. Miller, *Democracy in Educational Administration* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942), pp. 11-12.

Writers on the subject of business and industrial management have recognized variations of the line-and-staff organization, but these innovations with their varying degrees of complexity are hardly pertinent to school operation.³ The significant point is that no two large school systems follow an exact pattern of organization, but that all such patterns are basically line-and-staff, and that the degree of deviation from the original principle is largely due to the personnel holding the line-and-staff positions rather than to an intentional deviation from the idea.

The first staff officers. The first staff officers assigned were supervisors, and the first supervisors were subject supervisors. Their job was in the classrooms, and immediately there arose the question of possible overlapping authority. The line-and-staff principle came to the rescue, the principal being designated as line officer responsible for the management of his school, including instruction, and the supervisor as staff officer who came to the school as an expert in her field, with no authority over principal, teacher, or child. It was not that principals and supervisors were expected to get into arguments about their respective directions to teachers, nor was it that teachers were expected to become confused about leadership. Instead, it was a simple principle of management of personnel that seemed expedient. One of the superintendents of the time, Blewitt of St. Louis, stated the working agreement in these words:

The line-and-staff conception regards the principal as vested with the immediate responsibility of setting in motion and directing all those forces that must be at work to instruct and to educate the pupils of the school most skilfully. Under this conception the principal makes use of the supervisor as one of his effective means of accomplishing his plans. He does not regard the supervisor as one who filches from him his office or as one on whom he may unload responsibility that presses too heavily upon his own easy indifference or incapacity.⁴

This adherence of school systems to operational patterns already established in American life is nothing to arouse consternation. It is to be graciously accepted as further evidence that a school system derives its characteristics from its supporting society, and would

³ Bethel, *op. cit.*, pp. 136-143.

⁴ St. Louis, Missouri, *Fifty-sixth Report of the Board of Education*, 1910, pp. 215-216.

- have little if any intrinsic quality of its own if it were separated from that society. As will be treated in later chapters, there have been recorded many criticisms of the inspectional and authoritarian methods that supervision took into the classrooms. However, the nature of supervision must not be confused with the principle of school organization under which the supervision worked.

SUPERVISION'S ATTACHMENT TO ADMINISTRATION

Ever since supervisors were added to school management, there has been a concerted attempt to draw a line of demarcation between administration and supervision, between the job of administering and that of supervising. But this campaign for strict interpretations is still far short of its goal, for those who have dared to set the stakes have reached no common agreement. There seem to have been three different camps among the campaigners, *i.e.*, three different approaches taken or conclusions reached. These three positions can be briefly described.

1. *Setting-up vs. carrying-out.* Some have pointed out that administration involves the performance of all those duties that make possible the carrying out of the educational program, and supervision all those that make for the better operation and improvement of it.⁵ This point of view gives administration the job of setting up the material facilities, personnel, and other conditions for instruction, and supervision the assignment of seeing that instruction is carried out in an effective manner. That is, the former handles the machinery and management of the enterprise, the other the process of instruction.

2. *Authority vs. service.* Another popular approach in drawing the distinction between the two has been to emphasize authority in the case of administration, and service in the case of supervision, a reflection of the line-and-staff distinction of positions. Typical of this treatment are these two statements:

A rough distinction may be made by defining as administrative every act or decision that is based upon authority; and as supervision every effort to persuade, to enlighten, and to arouse in teachers a state of readi-

⁵ J. C. Wright and Charles R. Allen, *The Administration of Vocational Education* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1926), p. 1.

ness to modify their behavior and attitudes in line with the educational program of the school.⁶

Administration executes, directs, tells, orders; supervision advises with, instructs, stimulates, explains, leads, guides, assists. Both plan, both diagnose, both inspect; but administration decides and orders execution, while supervision helps to decide and assists in improving instruction.⁷

The functions, as thus divided and described, must be thought of in relationship to those officers who would bear them. To carry to extremes the distinction described would be absurd. It would divide school officials into two groups, the administrators and the supervisors. The former would move with dispatch, giving directions and orders to their associates and underlings. The latter would move in a more leisurely fashion, enlightening the teachers under supervision and patiently working with them in an attempt to persuade them to develop or accept a program. When the administrator appeared the teacher would stand at attention and await the directive. When the supervisor appeared, the teacher would be at ease and would present his ideas about the matter at hand.

For the administrator always *to direct* and the supervisor always *to serve* would call for two distinctly different personalities in the positions. The absurdity of this distinction between the functions of administration and supervision is best appreciated by considering the case of the school principal who carries both responsibilities. It would be necessary for him to change personalities at will, in a Dr. Jekyll-Mr. Hyde manner. On one trip around the building he would force through administrative directives dealing with teacher assignments, use of the course of study, or what-not. On a subsequent trip into the classrooms he would patiently work with the teachers in instructional matters, in an attempt to assist and stimulate their instructional efforts. On the administrative trips he would act as an authoritarian; on the supervisory trips he would be the true democrat.

To those who have served as administrators and have wished to act in a most democratic manner, it is well known that he who wears the crown at times has difficulty in determining whether his

⁶ P. W. L. Cox and R. E. Langfitt, *High-School Administration and Supervision* (New York: American Book Company, 1934), p. 566.

⁷ Jesse B. Sears, *Modesto Junior College Survey* (Modesto, California: Board of Education, 1932), p. 176.

associates' acts are prompted by a democratic spontaneity or by mere respect for the crown.

3. *The whole vs. the part.* A third approach to a distinction might be called the whole versus the part; that is, the idea that administration represents the whole enterprise of school management and that supervision represents a portion of it that is delegated to others by the top administrators. The distinctive feature of this idea is that the delegation of a portion of the whole operation takes place not because of a distinctive function, but rather for the simple reason that there is too much for the original administrative personnel to manage. Here are some statements that reflect this point:

To some extent, every administrator is a supervisor and every supervisor participates in administrative affairs. Indirectly, if not directly, among the functions of a county, district, or city superintendent is included a responsibility for the degree to which his subordinates can and do achieve successful realization of educational policies through his organization and supervision of suitable school and classroom practices. However, since a superintendent, especially of a large school system, should be concerned primarily with the formulation of broad educational policies, he usually needs to delegate his supervisory responsibilities to others who participate in the more personal relationships of the educational process and who are then called upon to report to him concerning progress in one or another area.

In a large school system, supervisory authority usually is delegated by the superintendent to assistant superintendents, local school principals, and directors of special educational fields, such as music, art, health education, pupil welfare, and the like. . . .

Even though these assistants to the superintendent are concerned primarily with the supervision of teaching procedures and pupil progress, they must include in their duties the execution of certain administrative details.⁸

As their well-wishers work furiously to effect a divorce, administration and supervision seem to continue their happy state of mutual affection and close relationship. Course after course, text after text, and statement after statement in the field of education repeat the phrase *administration and supervision*. The significance of the combination of terms is perhaps the fact that the mention of one suggests the other. To what extent they are synonymous, to what extent

⁸ L. D. Crow and A. Crow, *Introduction to Education* (New York: American Book Company, 1947), pp. 227-228.

they merely overlap, to what extent they are opposites will still have to be determined by the students of the future. For the present we may draw these conclusions:

1. Administration, for the most part, reflects more authority than supervision.
2. Although there is the administrative supervision of plant and equipment, for the most part the term supervision implies direction of the instructional program.
3. When considered as two somewhat different functions, supervision represents a delegation of responsibility by administration, and consequently represents a fractional part of the over-all direction of the school enterprise.

A member of the New York City board of education, James Marshall, would dismiss the whole controversy with this suggestion: "In education lingo there is the habit of distinguishing between the administrator and the supervisor, which has led to confused thought on administration and harmful stratification of education systems."⁹ However, the importance of planning in school operation cannot be dismissed just because of difficulties in job analysis.

Job analysis. In almost any large school system today, there is provided an administrative code that represents a delineation of the functions, responsibilities, authorities, and principal relationships of the positions provided in the central office staff, beginning with the board of education and the superintendent, and extending on through assistants, associates, co-ordinators, directors, and supervisors. In school operation as well as in business and industry the duties of members of the central force are always more difficult to define than are those of the more routine positions.

Functional charts, such as the one presented in Figure 3, are frequently published, but yet the extent to which they represent actual operational practice is highly dependent upon the personnel holding the various positions. It is one thing to allocate a function to a position; it is another to hold the occupant of the moment to such limitations of the job. However, there is nothing wrong with a school system attempting to set up a job description of each line and staff position. It is valuable to those holding such positions, even

⁹ James Marshall, "The Boss Who Bosses vs. Productive Leadership," *The School Executive* (Special Issue, January, 1951), p. 40.

though allowances are to be made for personalities in office at the moment and to conditions of the moment. The many fine shades of intangible responsibilities, possibilities, and relationships which are the essence of a position vary to a degree with those holding it. For instance, one principal will want a strict interpretation of every regulation from the central office, so that he may follow it to the letter of the law. Another will make his own interpretations.

Principal and supervisor. How far may a person in a supervisory position go in fulfilling his responsibilities? What are the limits of his authority? It is commonly known that the principal in a school carries more authority than the supervisor who shuttles in and out from the central office. However, this has nothing to do with the relative influence that the two may exert upon instructional practice. If a classroom teacher respects the supervisor as an instructional leader, and the principal as merely a boss, then the matter of authority plays second fiddle to professional respect in the organizational scheme of things.

Although school operation has copied features of business and industrial operation, the concept of management holds lesser status in educational circles. Although a school system deserves efficient administration, the term management hardly denotes the working relationship that is sought between superintendent and assistants and the teachers. Nevertheless, sound school administration calls for continued effort at the establishment of the functions of positions and the consequent responsibilities inherent in such functions. This need not be carried to academic extremes.

DEMOCRACY IN SCHOOL AFFAIRS

For over a decade there has been apparent an attempt to release school management from the line-and-staff principle on the grounds that it is a hierarchial and authoritarian scheme that has disqualified itself for democratic practice. One evidence of this is a declining popularity in the presentation of staff relationships in chart form, such as is represented in Figure 3. Another is the tendency in a superintendent's office not to indicate exact responsibility and authority in the case of a staff position newly established, such as director of audio-visual aids or co-ordinator of instruction. The most notable evidence of this trend of thinking is the statement of the point of view in educational journals and at conferences.

At times such proposals represent an attack upon the line-and-staff principle on authoritarian grounds, and at times they are directed against the idea that any distinction can be drawn between an administrative and a supervisory position. The quotation that follows is an example of the first type:

The line-and-staff scheme of hierarchial authoritarian administration and supervision was invented when teachers were little more than day laborers, when very little was known about educational art or science. Moreover, it seemed to be a logical way to bring a necessary measure of order out of the educational chaos which was the inevitable result of our piecemeal method of developing the total educational enterprise. But the conditions which at one time partially justified the centralized, hierarchial scheme of administration and supervision no longer exist—at least not to any great extent. What we need is to devise a *modus operandi* in our large cities that will release and utilize the talents of all those who participate in the educational enterprise.¹⁰

Here it is implied that the organizational aspects of this pattern of school management have tended to thwart teacher initiative and talent. Does the existence of lines of responsibility and reporting preclude the existence of a democratic give-and-take among teachers, supervisors, and administrators? Truman Pierce, in the following statement, isn't much worried about patterns:

Democratic educational administration is not a ritual. It depends on no particular pattern of organization and is not a matter of ceremony. Thus, the line-and-staff organization does not of itself deny the opportunity for effective democratic leadership. Outward symbols or signs are not necessarily indicative of real democracy in educational administration. Democracy cannot exist unless these signs reflect a true interest in the welfare of all individuals, respect for the work of each, and belief in the ability of all to make a worth-while contribution. In other words, democracy is a matter of feeling, of emotion rather than a formal type of organization or adherence to a particular set of techniques.¹¹

Who can draw the line? Then, as stated earlier, there exists the point of view that perhaps the whole question of distinctions has been overdrawn. John Rorer says as much: "In democratic education

¹⁰ W. B. Featherstone, "Taking the Super Out of Supervision," *Teachers College Record*, 44:3 (December, 1942), p. 199. Quoted by permission of Columbia University Teachers College.

¹¹ Truman M. Pierce, "The Nature of Democratic School Administration," *Louisiana Conference on Educational Administration Report*, 1951, p. 34. Quoted by permission of the Louisiana Department of Education.

tion, administration and supervision are coordinate, correlative, and complementary functions having as their common purpose the provision of all means and conditions favorable to teaching and learning. Thus, there is no sharp distinction between the two."¹²

This is directly opposed to the older notion that the administrator directs, orders, decides, and tells; while the supervisor persuades, enlightens, stimulates, leads, and assists. One of the best evidences that anyone who tries to carry the distinction too far wrecks his theory is the fact that the principal is certainly both an administrator and a supervisor. He can hardly go about ordering, directing, and forcing things through, and on the next trip stimulate, assist, guide, and inspire.

It can be concluded that from here on we are going to hear little about the line-and-staff principle, and charts of operation are going to be less frequently published. The warm human relationships now evident among school workers mark such mechanical matters as somewhat superfluous. However, in any academic treatment of the principles of school operation, such as the present one, it will be pointed out that underneath the seething operation of a large school system there exists a framework once commonly referred to as the line-and-staff pattern.

Looking ahead. Perhaps the moral to this whole controversy is to take a sane attitude toward administrative organization, avoiding both the extreme camps, (1) the one that detests mechanics and the very thought of contemplating problems of responsibility and authority, and (2) the one that would measure every staff worker against a chart of specific requirements and demand an accounting for each trespass. The declaration of an abstract principle must always be tempered with adjustment and working compromises. Problems of control and management of public education are bound to continue, especially in the larger systems, and there is no reason to think that both the standards of administrative efficiency and the purposes of democracy cannot be served at the same time.

We cannot avoid the delegation of authority and responsibility in school operation. This principle springs not from the theory of management but from the classroom itself. The education of a child is a precious undertaking that calls first for responsibility vested in

¹² John A. Rorer, "Principles of Democratic Supervision," *Teachers College Record*, 44:5 (February, 1943), pp. 374-375.

the teacher, and then in turn the apportionment of responsibility among all the other positions that fan out from that hub of educational endeavor.

And with responsibility comes authority. The division of such into legal, moral, and professional authority and responsibility is taken for granted. That some supervisors, superintendents, and principals can distinguish more clearly than others among these subtle differences, and that some are more ethically astute than others, is not to be denied.

Democracy and authority are most compatible in government and public affairs, and they can likewise be in school operation. The democratic welfare of teachers can be protected from an unbearable chaotic state of supervision only with a system of administration that is not afraid of tackling the problem of designating responsibility. The democratic welfare of the citizens who invest in a system of public education can be protected only in a school organization that designates responsibilities. And only likewise can the educational welfare of the children be protected. It is well appreciated why theory has wished supervision to be completely free of authority. However, it is still to be determined how it is practical to make it so. The matter must be treated at greater length in a later chapter.

It is common practice for school systems to issue codes of action and relationships for the guidance of their personnel. For instance, one such code is the bulletin issued by the Tucson schools, entitled *Report on Administrative Organization and Relationships for the Tucson Public Schools*. It sets out the duties of all personnel from the board of education on through to the principal of the school, and develops the working relationships.

Broad operational policies of a school system must provide for the exercise of initiative, discretion, judgment, and adaptation on the part of teachers, principals, administrative assistants, supervisors, and others. Any program of instructional leadership must be directed by the desire to enable each worker to bring to the job the best that he has to offer. The purpose of organizational machinery is to provide this, not to prevent it.

For Further Consideration

To what extent can a large school system establish specialized staff services without developing some system of organizational relationships such as the line-and-staff plan? Is there much to be gained by school

administrators in attempting to distinguish supervision from administration? Is the influence of a principal or supervisor upon classroom instruction due to any extent to the amount of authority vested in the position? Does the classroom teacher need to know the extent of the authority or the responsibility delegated to a supervisory position? Are authority and democracy as concepts in school operation in any way incompatible? In the area of instructional leadership, are there specific distinctions between the concepts of supervision and co-ordination?

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Supervision as Control

LEGISLATORS and boards of education can set the legal status of school administrators, but only the school administrators themselves can set the professional status of their positions. The assumption of leadership in instructional matters—*i.e.*, the supervisory function of the job—has marked the gradual movement of school administration from an amateur to a professional standing.

As the race for the improvement of instruction has run its course to date, the supervisory baton, first carried by the layman of Colonial days, has in turn been passed down through the years to superintendent, principal, and special supervisor. How the current runner handles his supervisory stint is dependent to a degree upon the concept that his forerunners brought down from the past; *i.e.*, upon how they covered the ground. How one understands present supervisory efforts is dependent upon a knowledge of those that were made in the earlier periods of American education.

Our interest here is not in the history of American education, but rather in the separation from its detailed warp and woof of the true threads of supervision, threads that are anchored at one end to the early colonist's strict control of his town school, and at the other to the current search for a democratic program of supervision.

FOUR PERIODS IN THE HISTORY OF SUPERVISION

The writer sees four rather distinct periods in the development of supervision, as indicated by the concentration of emphasis and effort. Figure 4 represents a skeletonized view of these four, the account of which is limited to this and the two following chapters. The four are:

1. Inspectional control of the school by laymen
2. Inspectional control of the school by school administrators
3. Close supervision of the teacher's classroom by principals and special supervisors
4. In-service programs calling for co-operative endeavor of teachers and those charged with the supervisory function.

In this chapter are treated the first two periods, in which supervision was so often synonymous with control. Chapter 4 presents a resume of the third, the period of intensive examination of the teacher's classroom performance. In Chapter 5 we move into the current period, exploring distinguishing features. The remainder of the book represents the detailed account of supervision in America's schools today.

The First Period—The Layman Takes Over the Supervision of His Schools

"This day the selectmen, accompanied by the Reverend Mr. Prentice and some other gentlemen of the town, visited the school, and after good advice given the children . . ." ¹—so reads one of the many early Colonial records which reveal without a doubt that American school supervision originated, as did so many of our educational principles, with the New England colonists.

Even though born of the mating of two shady characters—*inspection* and *control*—and reared by the selectmen of the New England colonies, there is something wholesome about the entrance of supervision upon the American school scene. This point can best be appreciated by first reviewing two early school laws, and the principles reflected in them.

The good that is to be achieved from a public school is for the community or the society in general as well as for the child being educated. Now a commonly accepted principle of school provision, this truth is just as plainly stated in the following excerpt from a famous Massachusetts law of 1642 as it is stated in any twentieth century state school law:

Forasmuch as the good education of children is of singular behoofe and benefit to any Commonwealth, & whereas many parents & masters

W. H. Small, *Early New England Schools* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1914), p. 336.

Supervision as Control

<i>Concepts of Supervision in American Education</i>	<i>Period of Influence</i>	<i>Parties Doing the Supervision</i>	<i>Nature of the Supervisory Program</i>
1. Inspection of school and classroom.	Colonial period on down to the Civil War.	Laymen: clergy, school wardens, trustees, selectmen, citizens' committees.	Inspection for the sake of control. Emphasis upon observing rules and maintaining existing standards.
2. Inspection of school and classroom.	Nineteenth century.	Professional officials: state, county, local superintendents; principals.	Inspection for the sake of control. Emphasis upon regulations, with some leadership for improvement.
3. Supervision of classroom instruction.	1910-1935.	Responsibility divided between principals and special supervisors or helping teachers.	Improvement of instruction through direct classroom observation and demonstration, with attention focused upon the teacher's weaknesses.
4. Co-operative educational leadership.	After 1935.	Responsibility of principals and special supervisors shared with co-ordinators, curriculum directors, consultants, etc.	Program centered in co-operative study enterprises, such as curriculum development, in-service training courses, etc., aiming toward improvement of instruction.

Figure 4. Periods in the Development of American School Supervision

are too indulgent of their duty in that kind, It is Ordered that the Select Men of every Town in the several precincts, and quarters where they dwel, shall have a vigilant eye over their brethren and neighbors to see, first that none of them shall suffer so much barbarism in any of their families, as not to endeavor to teach, by themselves or others, their chil-

• dren & apprentices, so much learning, as may enable them to perfectly read the English tongue, and knowledge of the Capital laws; upon penaltie of twenty shillings for each neglect therein.

Unwilling to leave it to either parent or master apprentice to give the child his instruction in native tongue and civic action, these early civic leaders placed the responsibility squarely upon the town as a whole, "forasmuch as the good education of children is of singular behoofe and benefit to any Commonwealth." In fact, they were stating this principle of the American school system: *The welfare of the state is so dependent upon the education of each child that it is the state's responsibility to hold parents to their obligation in the matter.*

This Massachusetts statute stands as the first time in the history of English-speaking peoples that a legislative body representing the state ordered compulsory education for all the children. Five years later there came another law that likewise had no precedent in the English-speaking world. Following closely upon the highly significant 1642 legislation was the Massachusetts school law of 1647, passed by the General Court, which included the following mandate:

It is therefore ordered, That every township in this jurisdiction, after the Lord hath increased it to the number of fifty householders, shall then forthwith appoint one within their towne to teach all such children as shall report to him to write and reade, whose wages shall be paid either by the parents or master of such children, or by the inhabitants in general, by way of supply, as the major part of those that order the prudentials of the towne shall appoint; Provided, Those that send their children be not oppressed by paying much more than they can have them taught for in their other townes; and it is further ordered, That where any towne shall increase to the number of one hundred families or householders, they shall set up a grammar schoole, the master thereof being able to instruct youth so farr as they may be fited for the University; Provided That if any towne neglect the performance hereof above one yeare, that every such towne shall pay 5*£* to the next schoole till they shall performe this order.

The fierce devotion to the ideal of education for all children, as expressed by these two legislative acts, left no place in the public mind for schools that were not supervised. The limited number of children in those early New England towns, as well as the limited economy, marked the soil as too barren to produce the idea of professional school overseers. However, the spirit of the Colonial lead-

ers, as reflected in their compulsory school laws, did establish the principle of the necessity of school supervision. And it established the program of on the spot supervision, the responsibility being accepted by the selectmen themselves, who shared it with the ministers and other prominent citizens.

As these Colonial leaders visited their schools, they did so as judges observing the performance of the scholars before the schoolmasters. The term Inspector is frequently found in the records that have come down from that early period. And there is evidence that in some cases the schoolmaster of a town appeared before the Town Meeting to present reports of his work for the approval of the laymen. It is not surprising that, when school administrators in a later period took over the responsibility of supervision, they did so also as judges observing the performance of scholars before their masters.

The close inspection of these early schools reflected the nature of the English settler, always disdainful of comfort and softness. A matter-of-fact fellow, whose main desire was to be able to go his own way, he had a deep and abiding faith in the institutions that might assure him the retention of that freedom once he had found it. He was bound to provide free schools. And so strong was his faith in the idea, he by law forced his neighbor first to support them, and second to supervise their operation.

Neither the Dutch in New York, nor the Swedes on the Delaware—nor in fact any other distinct group of colonists—exerted the molding influence on American schooling that was exerted by the New Englanders. The principles of American school supervision are traced directly to the settlers from England.

How much and how often. It is true that their visits to the schools were marked by a spirit of inspection with emphasis upon strict control. And it is true that today the concept of adequate school supervision has advanced to a position where close inspection and dictatorial control are marked as questionable characters. But even though supervision was born of these two, the spirit that surrounded its coming established it as one of the significant events of the history of American education. The inspection of the early schools by the laymen set the custom or practice of supervision and made possible the easy transition to professional leadership that was to take over the responsibility in the nineteenth century. A nation accustomed to having citizens "superintend the execution of the scheme of educa-

tion in a school" quite readily moved over to a system in which a professional did the superintending.

The early period of school supervision, from the colonization of America on down through at least the first half of the nineteenth century, was based on the idea of maintaining the existing standards of instruction, rather than on the idea of improving them. The responsibility was vested in laymen who in the first place were not trained for the work and in the second place had little time to devote to it. It comprised only scattered visits to the schools, with emphasis upon checking adherence to regulations, including a cursory inspection of the classroom.

Making a livelihood in America in those early periods was not a simple matter, and working days were long, running into the night for many workers. It must have been apparent to all concerned, just as it is to one who today studies that era of American school operation, that these trustees, selectmen, wardens, and other lay school visitors were busily engaged at their own occupations and consequently could give little time to school inspection. There is little reason to believe that they were in the schools much more than the average school board member of today.

During this period teaching was not a profession, or even a "calling." It was little more than an occupation of chance employment, tagged with the supposition that "anybody can keep school." People went in and out of the classroom as the give-and-take of the economic life of the community marked it expedient to do so. The absence of a program of professional training, common standards of employment, and a position of leadership at the head of a school district, contributed to a program of lay supervision that was based on maintaining present standards rather than on improving instruction.

Elsbree, in his book *The American Teacher*, has presented one of the best resumes of the development of early supervision to be recorded. He summarizes his treatment of the Colonial period with this statement:

The underlying purposes of supervision in the more progressive areas during the colonial period were similar in some respects to those prevailing today; namely, to appraise the general achievement of pupils in subject matter, to evaluate the methods used in teaching, to observe the general management of the school and the conduct of the pupils, and to

ascertain as far as possible whether or not the money appropriated for the educational enterprises was being properly expended.

Of equal importance to supervisors were the amount and character of the instruction given in the principles and doctrines of the Christian religion. Judging from the prominent part played by the clergy in the supervision of schools, one is tempted to infer that this last motive was probably the dominant one in school visitation and inspection. Such a conclusion, however, needs qualification. The clergy were among the few well-educated persons in the colonies and it is only natural that they should have been selected to evaluate the work of the schoolmasters by passing on the quality of instruction provided and examining the pupils in the various subjects taught.

At best, supervision of the school teacher's performance during these days amounted to a superficial appraisal by ministers, selectmen, and school committees. The hierarchy of officers common to our present city school systems was foreign to the minds of the early settlers, and professionalized supervision, with emphasis upon the improvement of instruction, was a far cry to a civilization that could scarcely provide schools and schoolmasters.²

The Second Period—The Layman Seeks Relief from His Supervisory Duties

Four leaders emerge. It remained for the techniques of supervision to be developed by professional school administrators, vested with the responsibility of effective instructional programs. The nineteenth century established once and for all the principle that any school system—in fact, any school—if it is to serve the public interest, deserves a professional head, a leader to be vested with the responsibilities of school operation.

As America moved ahead into a new century, the inadequacies of the lay supervision of the schools seemed ill fitted to the complexities of a restless nation that was rapidly outgrowing its cities, its state constitutions, its hand tools, its school machinery—in short, its limited vision and action of an earlier existence. Once the Revolution was behind the young nation and its hope in the future had been stated in its new constitution, the ground was cleared for a system of public education to come into its own.

The metamorphosis that school operation experienced during this period is not surprising, for in school as well as in industrial management—in fact, in the entire development of America—necessity

² Willard Elsbree, *The American Teacher* (New York: American Book Company, 1939), p. 80.

has always functioned as the mother of invention. The meeting of two diverse factors—a seventeenth century pattern of school inspection and the nineteenth century propulsion of the young nation into the hopes and complexities of industrial life—gave birth to four distinct and significant school positions, all four of which have retained this distinction and significance right down to the present; namely:

- (1) The Principal of the School,
- (2) the State Superintendent of Schools,
- (3) the County Superintendent of Schools, and
- (4) the Superintendent of the Local School District.

The coming of these four supervisory positions reflected the nation's earnestness in establishing a truly democratic system of schools. As long as the true democratic function of government was retarded by European traditions, sectarian suspicions, sectional provincialism, and religious jealousies, the establishment of a universal system of free schools was also retarded. Even though the four positions were to undergo years of conditioning before achieving professional stature, their establishment to a great degree marked the nation's achievement of a businesslike attitude toward the provision of a system of public schools.

It will always be appreciated that the teacher working with a group of pupils in a classroom represents the heart and moving spirit of a system of schools, but it is also to be appreciated that historically the elevation of the American classroom to its position of professional and national consequence had to await the creation and development of these four positions. The unity of instructional effort results from good administrative leadership—whether on a local, county, or state level—and is impossible without this professional supervision.

There is nothing anti-American about the concept of supervision of effort, be it business, governmental, industrial, military, educational, or volunteer social effort. Our advancement has reflected supervisory leadership, and with time has come the democratic refinement of working relationships.

To say that these four administrative positions robbed the layman of his supervisory birthright would be to exaggerate the transaction. School communities, state or local, were not averse to the trend of

affairs. School trustees were practical citizens who for the most part were glad to delegate to the superintendent the job of overseer of schools. In turn, the superintendent of a district with a number of school units was in many instances willing to delegate to the principal the supervisory responsibility of his particular school. This is not to say that the lay trustee relinquished all desire to step into a school house to look around. Such inclination is still apparent today, and in most school systems is ethically synchronized with the supervision of the professional staff.

The annals of the Connecticut Board of Education imply that in 1839 they would have welcomed professional inspectors to replace their lay visitors to the schools. The account reads:

But the present mode of discharging this duty (supervision) is, in many places, inefficient, irregular, and formal at best. Schools are not unfrequently visited "twice," as required by law, in the same week, and sometimes in the same day. In many cases it is done not so much to encourage the teacher, or stimulate the pupil, as to secure a title to the school money. Until the past year it was not customary for any one of the Visitors to examine all the schools. Hence, no one could compare their relative progress. It is the practice to allot different schools to different members of the committee, and thus to make the labor less to each individual, if not as profitable to the school.³

THE PRINCIPALSHIP

Of the four administrative positions that came in to relieve the layman of his burden of school inspection and control, the principalship has the peculiar distinction of having been the first to secure a footing in the organizational scheme of things, but the last to secure the responsibility for improving instruction. Its advent was most natural.

In the beginning the townspeople had appointed a schoolmaster, who held his little brood together in one schoolroom. As towns grew into cities, the one-room schools grew likewise, and the presence of two or three teachers in a building led the trustees to designate one as *head teacher* or *headmaster*, as responsible. At times the position was designated as *principal teacher*. Organizational and clerical duties were added to those of teaching, as efficiency of oper-

³ Connecticut Board of Education, *Annual Report*, 1839. Quoted in Elsbree, *op. cit.*, p. 163.

ation demanded that the trustees have in each school a representative who could report directly to them about conditions, a teacher who could be designated as the one "in charge." The principal teacher took his records to the board meeting long before the position of superintendent was ever established. In fact this pattern of operation no doubt helped to pave the way for the later creation of the superintendency.

Absence of instructional status. Even when the term teacher was dropped from the title, the position still struggled to emerge from its insignificant beginnings. The early assignment resembled that of a present-day school clerk, the duties having come to the office in about this chronological order: (1) clerical, making out reports such as attendance and enrollment; (2) disciplinary, handling the control of the pupils and the school in general; (3) administrative, covering minor directives to teachers and tasks of organizing classes; and (4) supervisory, emphasizing inspection of classrooms. Supervision as the improvement of instruction was not to come until the twentieth century.

The movement into the responsibility for the control and order of the school is indicated by the following 1848 record from the Cincinnati schools:

To secure uniformity and efficiency in the administration of the discipline of the School, and at the same time to enable the Teachers and Assistants to give their whole time, as far as possible, to the business of instruction, the Board commits the general government of the School into the hands of the Principal.⁴

Administrative and organizational duties came along without too much strain on the existing principles of school operation. But right down through the last century the principal was denied in most districts any major responsibility for supervision that might in any sense of the word be considered as improvement of instruction. As the old century gave way to the new, the typical conception of the principalship was expressed in this 1897 record of the case in Bloomington, Illinois, an almost exact duplicate of which could have been found in about any section of the country:

⁴ Cincinnati, Ohio, *Nineteenth Annual Report of the Trustees and Visitors of Common Schools*, 1848, p. 26.

Bloomington, Illinois, 1897

Principals shall be responsible, under the direction of the Superintendent, for the observance and enforcement of the rules and regulations of the Board of Education, and in the discharge of these duties shall be entitled to the respect and deference of their assistant teachers; shall announce to the other departments, by the ringing of a bell, the hour for opening and closing, and for recess.

They shall see to the safekeeping and protection of the house, furniture, apparatus, fences, trees, and shrubbery, and maintain the strictest cleanliness in the schoolroom, in toilet rooms, and in outhouses. They shall forbid the pupils' appearing in or about the yard earlier than thirty minutes before the opening of the school, and prevent them from disturbing, by noise or otherwise, the neighborhood of the school. He shall also take allowable measure to insure order on the part of the pupils going to and returning from school.

The principals shall have charge of the original admission of pupils entitled to school privileges in their several districts; but in case of any doubt as to the right of the pupil to enter school, or in case the classification of the pupil is undetermined, the matter shall be referred to the Superintendent for adjustment. Pupils seeking admission must apply to the Superintendent on Monday. They shall have charge of readmissions after absence, under the rules thereof, and of transfers from one school to another, in case of a change of residence, for each of which a proper transfer shall be given.

The principal of each school, or person appointed by him, shall carefully supervise the pupils during recess, and prevent them from causing disturbance of any kind, and also from using improper language.

Principals shall receive and forward to the Superintendent the reports of the schools in their respective buildings. They shall have immediate charge of the highest grade in their respective schools unless otherwise directed by the Board. In this capacity they shall be subject to the rules concerning "Duties for Teachers."

The principals shall establish such special rules for securing good order in the stairways, halls, and schoolyards under their supervision as shall insure their neat and proper condition, and shall examine them as often as may be necessary for such purpose. They shall be responsible for any want of neatness or cleanliness about their school premises; and they shall have the special oversight and direction of the janitors, under the general supervision of the Superintendent.

Principals shall, on the first week of the term, file estimates of the supplies needed in their respective schools, and send the same to the Superintendent. The principal shall keep a record of such supplies furnished, and of the amount distributed to each teacher.

The principals of the ward schools shall be required to make a record of pupils who have completed the work prescribed for the ward schools; and this record shall contain an average of each pupil's standing in each

branch of study, also the general average of all the branches, together with the pupil's deportment, and certify the same and present it to the Superintendent on the next to the last Thursday of the school year.

Principals shall see that the teachers within their respective divisions are promptly notified and duly advised as to all rules and regulations pertaining to the government and classification of their schools, and that they carry out the same in every particular. For violent and repeated opposition to the authority of any teacher the principal may exclude a pupil from the school. Such pupil, by proper expression of regret to his teacher and giving satisfactory evidence of amendment, may, by the consent of the Superintendent, be reinstated in the school. In all cases of suspension the principal shall require the teacher to give immediate notice thereof to the parent or guardian of the pupil, and also to the superintendent, and every such notice shall state the offense for which the suspension is inflicted.

In cold or stormy weather the principals shall see that one or more rooms are open for the reception of pupils forty-five minutes before the opening of schools in the forenoon and thirty minutes in the afternoon, the rooms to be made comfortably warm; and one or more teachers shall be present and exercise a general care over the pupils; and whenever it would be injurious for pupils to go home at noon, on account of the inclement weather or distance from schools, the pupils, with the consent of the principal, may be allowed to remain, and suitable provision shall be made for their protection and care, under the eye of a teacher.

Principals shall determine all questions of discipline in their respective schools between teacher and scholar. Questions of discipline between principal and scholar, or between principal and parent, or between principal and teacher, shall be determined by the Superintendent; and his decision shall be conclusive until action of the Board be had thereon.

Principals shall make out the payrolls for their teachers at the close of each month and deposit the same with the Secretary.

During the progress of examinations principals may use their discretion to dismiss the pupils upon completion of their work as prescribed for the day.

Principals shall deliver at the close of the year, at the office of the Superintendent, a list of school property in their possession, accounting for such as may be removed or seriously injured.

Principals shall send payroll, inventory, annual registers, grade record book, teachers' addresses, corporal punishment report, list of supplies for opening term of following year, list of needed repairs, and record of pupils in each branch of study to the office of the Superintendent on the last Wednesday of the school year.⁵

The position achieves administrative efficiency. It is readily apparent that in the organization and management of the school, the

⁵ Bloomington, Illinois, *Twenty-first Annual Report of the Public Schools*, 1897, pp. 15-18.

principalship was the key position by the end of the century. The principle of efficiency of operation that was the keystone of American business had by this time been accepted in the management of school systems as well. The rules of the boards of education as set out would imply that this phase of school supervision was operating with dispatch. In fact, the administrative manipulation was set up in such detail that the absence of responsibility for instructional supervision was all the more apparent. The position was to await until the twentieth century to receive the assignment of instructional leadership.

Naturally, numerous principals as individuals played key roles long before 1900 in improving classroom instruction, both methods and content; but the position itself was not uniformly assigned the responsibility until later. Instructional statesmanship was achieved by the position sometime after it had achieved administrative efficiency in handling reports, making out payrolls, classifying pupils, handling equipment, dispatching requisitions, taking inventories of and ordering supplies, enforcing school board regulations, controlling noise and disorder in and about the school, settling disputes with patrons, handling the safety and welfare of pupils, keeping budgets, transferring pupils, and inspecting buildings. To the exactitude of managerial duties was to be added the leadership of teachers in instructional matters.

The exception to the rule. The designation of four periods in the development of school supervision in this country implies a rather arbitrary division of practice. Rather, it is better to recognize the four as overlapping trends, each of the four practices lingering on a while before completely giving way to its successor. For instance, in Figure 4 the school administrator's replacement of lay supervision is placed at about 1865, whereas it is known that in some states and districts this public confidence in the professional head was expressed years before. Likewise, in others the layman held on to the responsibility until late in the century. Furthermore, the relative development of the principalship and superintendency as treated here has its contradictory note here and there in the records of history. Just in order to dispel any tendency to give to these four periods more exactitude than they deserve, the following conflicting references are appended.

As late as 1876 a committee of the board of education in Jersey City was held responsible for the supervision of the schools, and was obliged to visit it at least once a month, "to examine into all matters relating to the management of the school," and to make reports and recommendations from time to time before the entire board.⁶

As early as 1839, the principals of the schools in Cincinnati shared with the trustees the responsibility of directing teachers. It was stated that "in the absence of the trustee of the district and his special instructions—the principal teacher is expected to give the necessary instructions to his assistants, and to classify the pupils and regulate the schools under his charge."⁷

And in 1859, Superintendent Wells of Chicago wrote of the principals there "giving such aid to the other teachers as may be necessary to secure uniformity and efficiency."⁸

THE STATE SUPERINTENDENCY OF SCHOOLS

As America entered the nineteenth century, her schools were in a position of limited efficiency and even more limited esteem, the conditions being of marked contrast to the ideals and efforts that had sparked their local beginnings in the New England towns. The recently adopted Federal Constitution brought with it a sharpened awareness of states' rights and responsibilities. The pointed discussions leading to the determination of the form and functions of the Federal Government, and consequently the powers to be left to the states, must have had their current influence upon the provision for public education. It was not by chance that early in the new century in state after state there developed a growing uneasiness about local school conditions, a concern that found an outlet in the creation of the state school system.

It was accepted that, since no such provision was made in the Federal Constitution, the responsibility for public education in America rested with the respective states. The earliest advocates of the American republic realized that the success of the young government, and its later perpetuation, as well, were dependent upon a system of common schools that would bring the citizens up to the

⁶ Jersey City, New Jersey, *Annual School Report*, 1876, p. 21.

⁷ Cincinnati, Ohio, *Annual Report of Common Schools*, 1839, p. 23.

⁸ Chicago, Illinois, *Annual Report of the Schools*, 1859, p. 43.

level of literacy and civic action implied in a government that was to derive its just powers from the consent of the governed. To the interest and effort that up to this time had been completely localized, was now added the state's acceptance of joint responsibility for a system of common schools.

The development of state school systems, including the creation of the position of chief state school officer has its trial and error aspects, but embracing the total movement was the acceptance of the basic principle that every child in a state deserves a basic program of schooling, which in turn calls for the state supervision of local effort. The organization of state school systems called for a chief school officer.

Early attempts. The position of chief state school officer, more often known as the state superintendent, began on a trial basis. New York was the first state to create the office (1812), but gave it up in 1821. Maryland made the break in 1826, but abolished the position two years later. The first trial in Ohio, 1837, lasted three years. The Connecticut beginning of 1838 was later interrupted by public change of heart. Other states had similar experiences.

The 1837 establishment of the Massachusetts State Board of Education, with Horace Mann as secretary, marked the beginning of the continuous existence of the state headship in that state. The Kentucky state school office, established the next year, has likewise continued without a break. Cubberley credits Michigan with the first continuous state position, 1829 bringing the state superintendent of common schools, and 1836 the change of title to superintendent of public instruction.⁹

That the position in many states for many years was an ex-officio post, handled by another state officer such as secretary of state, means little to our discussion here other than as evidence that the principle of state supervision of schools was not to be side-tracked by political expediency. By the time of the Civil War, state school heads were found in thirty of the thirty-six states and organized territories, the officer being full-time in twenty-one and ex-officio in nine.¹⁰ The challenge of the basic principles of American democ-

⁹ Elwood P. Cubberley, *State School Administration* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1927), p. 271.

¹⁰ Elwood P. Cubberley, *The History of Education* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920), p. 688.

racy was met by state after state as they provided in their constitutions for state systems of public education.

The study of the provisions for education in the state constitutions and in the school laws invoked by state legislatures is a study in itself. "The legislature shall provide for the maintenance and support of a system of free common schools, wherein all the children of this state may be educated" is a typical statement of such a provision, this one from New York, vesting the legislature with the responsibility of seeing to it that *all* children have equal opportunity for public schooling.

Supervision of schools. Early state school heads worked without the personnel and financial facilities that would have enabled them to carry on a program of school supervision. Many of them, such as Caleb Mills in Indiana and Horace Mann in Massachusetts, led the fight for better schools which in the long run meant the improvement of instruction for the child. Horace Mann, who held his office eleven years, is credited with having spent an average of fifteen hours a day at the job, and having gone months without getting time to call upon a friend.¹¹ The scope of activity of the office is described by the following three statements, the first by Elsbree, and the others excerpts from early superintendents' reports as unearthed by him.

By dint of unusual strength and effort he (the state superintendent) sometimes managed to visit selected schools in each county and thereby gained firsthand impressions of educational conditions. In some states the commissioner was required by law to spend several weeks in the different counties of the commonwealth each year.

Because of its magnitude and scope, however, the task soon took on the character of broad supervision. It was the state superintendent's responsibility to gather statistics, to awaken public interest, to advise regarding legislation, to unify the school work of the state, to supervise the use of school funds, and to exercise leadership generally with respect to educational matters.¹²

In his *First Annual Report* (1852), the Indiana state superintendent stated that "it would be impossible for him however he might desire it to make personal visitations to the public schools, and to exercise over them any direct influence. Should he attempt to go

¹¹ *Indiana School Report, 1852*, p. 33. (As reported by Elsbree, Willard, *op. cit.*, p. 167.)

¹² Elsbree, *op. cit.*, p. 166.

into every school district of the state, as some seem to suppose he ought, it would require for him to get once around spending a day in each district, full sixteen years."¹³

The state superintendent of Illinois in 1857 had other worries, as he reported: "The undersigned has frequently gone to his office in the morning, after having devoted the entire day previous to letter writing, with the hope of spending a single hour in the investigation of some interesting educational topic, and found fifty and not infrequently as high as one hundred letters awaiting his attention, and all demanding immediate answers."¹⁴

Whether he wrote letters, visited schools, or made speeches, the early superintendent promoted the spread of public education. He helped with school legislation, he disseminated information about the schools and educational needs, and he aided local school districts as they dealt with their problems.

Among the more famous of the earlier state school heads were Horace Mann of Massachusetts, Caleb Mills of Indiana, Henry Barnard of Connecticut, Calvin Wiley of North Carolina, John Pierce of Michigan, Ninian Edwards of Illinois, Alexander Dimitry of Louisiana, William Perry of Alabama, John Swett of California, Robert Breckinridge of Kentucky, and Samuel Galloway of Ohio.¹⁵

Waging their warfare for better schools from about 1835 to 1860, are their efforts to be recorded as supervisory leadership? Edgar Knight, one of the more competent educational historians of our time, sums up their work with this statement:

These leaders sought to enlighten the public mind on the benefits of public schools when their private schools were the only respectable educational agencies, when the idea of education at public expense was scorned as communistic, and when the need for universal education was not generally felt.

They urged concern for the underprivileged and looked with compassion upon physical, mental, and moral delinquents at a time when feeble-mindedness, insanity, and other deformities were viewed as practical jokes played upon puny human beings by a capricious God.

They advocated gentleness and kindness in the school when discipline

¹³ *Indiana State School Report, 1852*, pp. 29-30. Reported in Elsbree, *op. cit.*, p. 166.

¹⁴ *Second Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction in the State of Illinois, 1857-58*, p. 28. Reported in Elsbree, *op. cit.*, p. 166.

¹⁵ Edgar W. Knight, *Education in the United States* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1929), pp. 192-236.

within and without the schoolroom was severe; when most people believed themselves conceived in the sin and born in the iniquity of the old Adam, which must be removed by a rod of iron.

They urged that the school should be a happy place, when enjoyment of any kind was generally frowned upon as wicked and unregenerate.

They recommended enriched and vital courses of study—music, physiology, hygiene—when few urbanites were allowed to flourish in education, when sanitation was practically unknown, and when disease was viewed as a vengeful visitation of Providence and bathtubs as undemocratic and un-American.

They urged the training of teachers, state support and state control of education, child-labor and compulsory-attendance legislation, and free schools for all at a time when the people thought of democracy as the privilege to do as they pleased, and when equality was in reality only skin-deep.

Most of these ante-bellum educational leaders, while laboring for such unpopular reforms, turned neither to the right nor to the left. They closed their careers as frontier thinkers and workers in the "larger sphere of mind and morals" with many enduring monuments about them. In the light of their problems and their achievements they were true to conscience and the common weal, and bade defiance to ignorance always and everywhere.¹⁶

One of the best reports of the professional activities of the early state school officer is the 1880 work of J. H. Smart, in which he reviews the duties of the 38 chief school officers of that time.¹⁷ In general, the duties as he found them included reporting to the legislature, visiting counties or regions annually, constructing school law and hearing appeals, apportioning funds, and collecting statistics.

In four states—Arkansas, Minnesota, Nevada, and Oregon—the duties included holding an annual institute; in New York, Ohio, and Wisconsin, supervision of institute work; and in Iowa, Nebraska, and New Jersey, visiting and addressing county normal institutes. The visiting or supervision of public schools was designated in Delaware, Massachusetts, New York, Rhode Island, Virginia, Oregon, and Kentucky. In Maine he was "to prescribe the studies of the common schools." He recommended textbooks in Arkansas, Kansas, and Wisconsin. He prescribed them in Nebraska, Rhode

¹⁶ Knight, *Ibid.*, pp. 235-236 (paragraphing by the writer).

¹⁷ J. H. Smart, *The Best System of Schools for a State*, National Superintendents' Association Report, Indianapolis, 1880. Reported in Katherine Cook, *Supervision of Instruction as a Function of State Departments of Education* (Washington, D. C.: United States Office of Education, 1940).

Island, and South Carolina. In all states but Delaware, the examination and supervision of teachers were among his responsibilities.¹⁸

THE COUNTY OR INTERMEDIATE SUPERINTENDENCY

When it was realized a hundred years ago that the co-ordination of the entire state school effort could not be handled by a single state school official, the first inclination in educational planning was not to enlarge the state department of education. Instead, it was to turn for help to the county as an existing political unit of the state, and the county superintendency emerged as a natural link in the school chain that was to tie local effort into state effort. In one recent study the position's creation is thus described:

Organized information relative to the condition of school buildings, school enrollments, programs of study, certification of teachers, and expenditures was almost nonexistent. Without such knowledge the state superintendent faced an impossible task of giving constructive leadership to a state educational system comprised of hundreds of small local administrative units. The states' urgent need for collecting such data was an important factor in creating the county school superintendency.

School lands given by the federal government had to be looked after. State school funds had to be apportioned, administered, and accounted for. Furthermore, there was the need for some official more familiar with the local conditions than the state superintendent could possibly be to see that legal requirements concerning organization and operation of schools became effective.¹⁹

Delaware is credited with having established the first county superintendency in 1829, and by 1879 the office had been tried in thirty-four of the thirty-eight states and in four territories. The story of its development is similar to that of the state superintendency, some states dropping the position before finally accepting it as a necessity. Furthermore, just as the state office had at times been handled by some other governmental offices, so in some cases the county educational duties were added to those of the land commissioner, the clerk, or some other existing post.

Once the position found its true footing, the county superintendent became the state's representative in local school matters. There was even statistical information to be reported to the state in the

¹⁸ Cook, *op. cit.*, pp. 5-6.

¹⁹ American Association of School Administrators, *The American School Superintendency, Thirtieth Yearbook* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1952), pp. 44-45.

earlier days, as well as state policies to be interpreted in turn to the local districts. That he was general overseer of the schools outside the jurisdiction of city superintendencies there is no doubt. As to the nature of his direction, there is little evidence that he was an instructional leader as conceived today.

Even though the county superintendent's office came in to aid in such matters as the apportionment of school moneys and the study of school boundaries, and even though in most instances it was an elective office, in time it was equally as effective as the city superintendency in taking over supervisory responsibilities. Found in practically all states outside New England, the position today is a key factor in the potential instructional effectiveness of the public schools of America. Today, in all states excepting Delaware and Nevada there are rural area school administrators, even though all are not classified as county superintendents.²⁰

The most comprehensive study of this phase of American school organization is the 1950 Yearbook of the Department of Rural Education, of the National Education Association. This 188-page study, *The County Superintendent of Schools in the United States*, treats the present status of the position, one that is truly supervisory as well as administrative.

THE LOCAL SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENCY

The traditional isolationism of the local American community, a characteristic that was not relinquished in the face of expanding boundaries of towns and cities, set the stage for a position of school supervision that could not be satisfied by either the state or the county superintendency. Slow to find a footing on the supervisory ladder, but eventually to become the top figure on this administrative totem pole, the local school superintendency is the position that signifies the true local characteristic of American education. Interest in their own children and pride in the local provision of a school program for them led cities and towns to incorporate the position in the school system.

Born a full quarter of a century after its state forerunner, it trailed in public popularity until late in the century. In part, this

²⁰ For further study of the post, see Elwood P. Cubberley, *The History of Education* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920).

was due to the fact that it was at first a city position, and its development had to emerge out of the development of American cities. Buffalo is generally credited with the first local superintendency, 1837, although Providence and Louisville are sometimes listed. The principal or head-teacher organization was generally characteristic until about 1840, at which time the superintendency came in.

Other reasons commonly listed for the tardy acceptance of the office into the family of school supervisors are these:

1. Pride of the local board members in their own supervision and control of the schools.
2. Lack of enthusiasm on the part of the principals.
3. Absence of competent candidates for the post, and the consequent fear of the board members of being held responsible for the results of incompetent leadership.

TABLE 1
ESTABLISHMENT OF THE CITY SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENCY²¹

<i>City</i>	<i>Year of Establishment</i>	<i>City</i>	<i>Year of Establishment</i>
1. Buffalo	1837	21. Chicago	1854
2. Louisville	1837	22. Indianapolis	1855
3. St. Louis	1839	23. Detroit	1855
4. Providence	1839	24. Worcester	1856
5. Springfield [Mass.]	1840	25. Minneapolis	1858
6. Philadelphia	1840	26. Milwaukee	1859
7. Cleveland	1841	27. New Haven	1860
8. Rochester	1841	28. Savannah	1866
9. New Orleans	1841	29. Kansas City	1867
10. Brooklyn	1848	30. Pittsburgh	1868
11. Memphis	1848	31. Washington	1869
12. Baltimore	1849	32. Richmond	1869
13. Cincinnati	1850	33. Wilmington	1870
14. Jersey City	1851	34. Denver	1871
15. Boston	1851	35. Atlanta	1871
16. New York	1851	36. Omaha	1872
17. San Francisco	1851	37. Portland	1873
18. Nashville	1852	38. Seattle	1882
19. Newark	1853	39. Salt Lake City	1890
20. Los Angeles	1853		

²¹ Theodore L. Reller, *The Development of the City Superintendency of Schools in the United States* (Philadelphia: the Author, 1935), pp. 81-82.

4. Reluctance of city councils to follow the school board's recommendation that the position be established.²²

On the other hand, the mounting pressure of the problems of school supervision in time dislodged such barriers to general national acceptance of the idea of a chief supervisor of the local school system. Interestingly enough, in contrast with his counterpart of today, the superintendent of the past century spent a large portion of his time in classroom supervision in an attempt to improve the work of teachers. In other words, when still in amateur standing the position reached its heyday in the direct supervision of instruction. The explanation is quite logical.

When the board of education created the superintendency, there were five main responsibilities of school supervision and management to be allotted between the two parties: (1) the business administration, (2) the supervision of the school plant, (3) the appointment of teachers and janitors, (4) the administration of the curriculum, and (5) the supervision of teaching. By preference and qualifications the board members at first retained the first three, and by preference and qualifications the superintendent accepted the other two functions. That is, matters involving business, buildings, and patronage seemed to fit the layman; and those involving studies and methods of teaching seemed to fit the superintendent, who in most instances had previously been a teacher or principal. In the twentieth century, as the superintendency became a position of professional standing, it took over the management of school plant, business affairs, and personnel, and in turn withdrew more and more from the classroom.

On the other hand, the trained superintendent of today, even though quite a few positions removed from the classroom, may exert more influence upon instruction than did his forebear who spent his time visiting schools and classrooms. The degree of effectiveness of that early pattern of classroom visitation is in doubt. At least that early inspection of classrooms has been recorded in history as a sincere attempt to improve schooling. To what extent earnestness of effort made up for absence of preparation nobody can say. In the accounts can be found such promising observations as these:

²² For further details, see American Association of School Administrators, *The American School Superintendency*, Thirtieth Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1952), p. 52.

On the other hand, intelligent superintendents learned a great deal from their observations, which contributed to the ultimate improvement of instruction. Outstanding achievements of teachers were brought to the attention of those who were less successful and the whole problem of method became a subject of discussion and study.

Teachers' meetings were frequently held. In most cities the meetings were held on Saturday and attendance was compulsory. General meetings, grade meetings, and special subject meetings provided an opportunity for teachers to share experiences and develop unified programs of study. Outside lecturers were often invited to participate in these gatherings and to bring new ideas and modes of teaching to the attention of the staff. The effect of these meetings was most salutary. They provided a medium by which leaders could direct and stimulate the thinking of those upon whose shoulders the real task of education rested.²³

Even though we may add to Elsbree's statement the more discouraging reports on instructional leadership of the past century, an average of the two would still place the creation of the local superintendency as an outstanding event in the improvement of American education. Once the superintendent was settled in the driver's seat with a fair knowledge of the controls, the public school machine gained momentum and turned the corner into the present century with a professional alacrity that gave the public assurance that they were leaving behind the horse-and-buggy days of "keeping school."

For Further Consideration

To what extent do local school codes, state school laws, state constitutional provisions, or other legal references to the responsibility for school supervision indicate concepts of supervision? Were there any merits in the inspection that characterized the first school supervision in America? Is any relationship to the subject of supervision today borne by the two early school laws quoted in this chapter? In a comparison of the relative contributions to school supervision made during the nineteenth century by the principalship and the local superintendency, to which position should go the major credit?

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4

Supervision Moves into the Classroom

AS REVIEWED in Chapter 3, the early conception of school supervision was instructionally meager. It sprang from sincerity but trickled out in materialistic efficiency. Its purely administrative characteristics placed it in the lap of the superintendent or principal; a special instructional leader wasn't yet envisioned.

As the nineteenth century closed its school accounts, the term supervision was still limited to the principal's responsibility for the safekeeping and regulation of the schoolhouse, the furniture and teaching apparatus, the registers and reports, the clocks and the heaters, the fences and the shrubbery, and the outhouses. All necessary and honorable features of a school situation, these favorites of administrative attention were merely the accouterments of the actual teaching situation. The Bloomington situation, as reported in Chapter 3, just about describes the turn-of-the-century situation from coast to coast.

The Third Period—Concentration on the Classroom

The birth of a new period. Then came the period of intensive interest in classroom operation and management, accompanied by the rapid provision of supervisory personnel—the third of four periods in the development of American school supervision and the one treated in this chapter. Roughly dated here as the twenty-five year stretch between 1910 and 1935, its coming is not surprising. The revolt against intricate school plant management as the sole responsibility of administration was bound to come. In fact, it was long overdue. Far stranger than its coming is the fact that it came as a sudden instructional eruption, with a minimum of rumblings to announce it.

Ordinarily, movements in American school operation are preceded by advance press notices in the form of books and articles in journals, that come from the school people. Reflecting the nature of classroom work itself, the average teacher or administrator is never hesitant in picking up a pencil to give his reactions to his job. But there is little in the literature of the time that would indicate that this eventual concentration of attention upon classroom instruction was in the offing.

J. L. Pickard had published his *School Supervision* in 1890, in the International Education Series, but it might be listed as a somewhat isolated title. Only one book on the subject was listed by *Wilson's Cumulative Book Index* as published from 1912 to 1917, and only one between 1918 and 1921. E. C. Elliott issued his *City School Supervision* (World Book Company) in 1914. In 1920 there came from the Houghton Mifflin press H. W. Nutt's *The Supervision of Instruction*. Its title is representative of the new interest that had been gradually emerging for the past decade. Its title—the supervision of instruction—is still highly representative of this interest. The concept that we are still trying to implement is still spoken of as the supervision of instruction.

Nutt's volume came as a forerunner of a series of books, magazine articles, and studies on the subject issued over a period of ten or fifteen years. The avid interest in the subject of classroom supervision brought forth these general books during the earlier years:

H. W. Nutt, *The Supervision of Instruction*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920.

C. J. Anderson, A. S. Barr, and Maybell Bush, *Visiting the Teacher at Work*, New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1925.

A. S. Barr and W. H. Burton, *Supervision of Instruction*, New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1926.

Ellsworth Collings, *School Supervision in Theory and Practice*, New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1927.

F. C. Ayer and A. S. Barr, *The Organization of Supervision*, New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1928.

G. C. Kyte, *How to Supervise*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1930.

A. S. Barr, *An Introduction to the Scientific Study of Classroom Supervision*, New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1931.

The supervisors, working as a national group, a department of the National Education Association, likewise leaned heavily upon some

of these authors as well as upon L. J. Brueckner for the preparation of their yearbooks of that time.

Perhaps it is fair to say that five or six of these authors cast the die for the pattern of classroom supervision common to American elementary and secondary schools. It is difficult to say to what extent they merely gave authenticity to a set of principles that were emerging quite naturally in the schools. At least they put their ears to the classroom door and recorded what was going on. At least they were the carriers who bore the tidings to the educational world. Their books were the bibles of the 1920 to 1930 intensive study of classroom supervision that was found in the graduate schools. The principal or supervisor who followed these printed pages as his classroom etiquette had to account to nobody back home. This was the authority. It was the period of establishing supervisory positions in the schools of the nation. It was the period of training teachers to take over such positions. Consequently, these few books were highly significant.

The fact that one publisher issued four of these books and another issued two of them would indicate that there must have been good returns from their publication and consequently wide circulation of the books. So closely attached to this classroom period of supervision were these few authors that it is impossible to conceive of there having been such a period without them. It is difficult to think of educational leaders who have exerted more influence upon the technical aspects of classroom management than these. Perhaps to A. S. Barr might go the title of Dean of American Classroom Supervision. To an American school system that had moved rather loosely-jointedly into a new century, this period brought an efficiency to classroom management that was needed before we could move on into the more enlightened period of the present.

Supervisory positions. With the printed word came the establishment of the position of supervisor. It wormed its way into the school budget and has never been dislodged since. This was true on the state as well as the local level. Perhaps the provision of elementary school supervisors in the state departments may be taken as representative of the establishment of the position locally. Only six states provided such positions in the first decade of the century, but twenty-nine more provided the service between 1910 and 1920.

Eight more introduced elementary school supervision from 1920 to 1930.¹

From the beginning of the century up until 1935 there was a steady increase in the provision of supervisory positions in the city school systems. This was true at both the elementary and secondary school levels. For the most part high school supervision was provided by fields, with special subject supervisors for English, social studies, art, science, and so on.

At the elementary school level two types of positions emerged. As in the case of the high school approach, one was the special subject supervisor. This was especially true of art, music, and physical education. In smaller cities it was common for these people to teach their specialty in the high school part of the day, and to spend the remainder of the day helping elementary school teachers with the subject. The other common type of position was the general elementary school supervisor. The scope of help here consisted of all the curriculum not covered by the specialists.

This combination of two types of positions is still prevalent throughout the country today. For instance, in San Francisco, the elementary schools are served by (1) supervisors of music, art, and physical education; and (2) general supervisors. These positions are supplemented by the various staff positions found in a large city system today—positions that mark a later period of instructional leadership.

ATTENTION FOCUSED UPON THE TEACHER

The levels of operation were established, the supervisor being on the top step, the teacher on the next, and the pupil on the bottom. Nutt commented, "That the supervisor exists for the sake of the teachers who work under his direction, and for the sake of the pupils who work under the direction of the teachers, may be stated as the first principle of supervision."²

Ayer and Barr followed Nutt's interpretation of the operational pattern by saying, "Supervision is a specialized function devoted to

¹Helen K. Mackintosh, *Supervision of Elementary Education as a Function of State Departments of Education* (Washington, D. C.: United States Office of Education, 1940), p. 1.

²H. W. Nutt, *The Supervision of Instruction* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920), p. 193.

the inspection, direction, and improvement of the educational activities of individuals working at one administrative level, administered by superior officers working at higher levels."³

Influencing factors. The spotlight was focused directly upon the teacher, who to this day has never completely adjusted himself to the glare. It was taken for granted that the teacher was not working up to capacity and that it was the responsibility of the principal or the special supervisor first to inspect the situation and then to bring more efficiency into the operation. It was considered a reflection upon the supervisor if he couldn't find something to improve. This emphasis on the supervision of the period from 1910 to 1935 was a direct reflection of the leadership that business and industry were lending to school management in all of its other aspects, as reviewed in Chapter 2.

Efficiency was the keynote, and its definition was the effective operation of the task at hand with a minimum of waste effort. The classroom teacher could not escape this movement. This close attention of management upon the efforts of the teacher followed the acceptance of the line-and-staff principle of industry just as surely as night followed day. American education learned a lot from American business, and it had to go all the way in its imitation before it could learn the features that were not applicable to the sound development of school programs.

The nature of supervision back in 1920 or 1925 was also influenced by the existence of related conditions and thought in other areas of schooling. Among these were:

1. *The curriculum was looked upon as little more than a number of subjects and skills to be manipulated by the teacher through routine procedures.* This tight and tidy conception of classroom learning invited a type of supervision just as rigid and precise. If the teacher was able to manipulate pupil growth in such a mechanical manner, it seemed reasonable to believe that supervision could handle teacher growth on the same basis.

2. *The theory of mental discipline still clung to its exalted pedestal, and psychologists were still courting the attractive additive aspects of*

³ F. C. Ayer and A. S. Barr, *The Organization of Supervision* (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1928), p. 348. (Used by permission of Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc.)

the atomistic theory. So great was the faith in the doctrine of formal discipline that it was pointed out that "every subject which is taught in a school shall be taught in the same way and to the same extent to every pupil so long as he pursues it, no matter what the probable destination of the pupil may be, or at what point his education is to cease."⁴ This disregard of individuality, and faith in uniform directives was fertile soil for the cultivation of a supervisory program with similar characteristics.

Furthermore, learning at both the elementary and secondary levels was conceived as a simple chain building process, of adding new facts to related ones already filed in the learner's mental storage compartment. Early classroom supervision served very well this more naive idea of growth and development.

3. *The out-of-class activities of youngsters were tolerated rather than encouraged by the school, and were not yet recognized as bearing educational values.* Although not an exact determinant of the supervisory pattern, this situation helped to restrict supervisory interest to the classroom, and to give credence to the formality of the approach. The self-sufficiency of the classroom situation did not demand supervision's consideration of the integration of school and community effort. Community obligations and contacts with other agencies for the benefit of the child were not yet a part of the picture.

4. *The testing movement, germinated by the apparent success of the Army Alpha of World War I, was gaining prominence on the grounds that both learning power and achievement could be measured with profound objectivity.* Such thinking and such instruments were channeled quite naturally into the flow of supervisory effort on the grounds that the success of a classroom—and consequently a teacher—could be measured with profound objectivity.

5. *The schools were still heavily populated with teachers with shortages in their pre-service training.* This has always been a strong impetus for the exertion of leadership upon the classroom. Perhaps the lower the level of training of the teachers to be supervised, the greater the temptation for administration to exert a program of action that is dictatorial, to establish a program of "right answers."

⁴ National Education Association, *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses*, 1894, p. 749.

These five conditions, coupled with the efficiency keynote borrowed from American business, influenced classroom supervision in its inspectorial and oppressive tendencies. Classroom supervision was launched primarily as the improvement of teachers through classroom observation of their performance, with emphasis upon weaknesses, and follow-up conferences set up by the supervisor to effect improvements. This main attack was buttressed on one side by demonstration teaching and on the other by an intricate system of recording teacher efficiency.

THE CLASSROOM VISIT

So mechanical became the process, an almost uniform formula was developed for the supervisor to follow in classroom visitation, and even the type of entry into the classroom became standardized. With this common supervisory pattern it was assumed that, if the teacher is to be improved, the first step is to find out through evaluation as scientific as possible what takes place in the classroom. And one after another the projected proposals emphasized the finesse the supervisor must exercise in this observation lest the teacher misinterpret the occasion of the visit.

In their early book on the subject, Barr and Burton reviewed the typical attitude about classroom entrance when they stated, "Obviously the entrance should be as inconspicuous as possible, causing a minimum of disruption in the work going on. . . . The mere presence of the supervisor creates a situation difficult for many teachers to meet." They suggested taking a position affording a good view of what was going on, but at the same time attracting as little attention as possible. The back of the room was preferred. They added that "taking notes often disturbs and embarrasses the teacher and should be avoided except in the case of teachers who do not mind."⁵

Measuring instruction. Standard forms of measuring instruction, teacher efficiency, and classroom management commanded a lot of attention. Just as the aim of supervision was to cut out lost motion in the teacher's activity, likewise there was a concerted effort to cut out lost motion on the supervisor's part. One of the more technical devices to save supervisory time was the classroom checksheet

⁵ A. S. Barr and W. H. Burton, *Supervision of Instruction* (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1926), p. 150. (Used by permission of Appleton-Crofts, Inc.)

devised by R. C. Puckett.⁶ The writer experienced this gadget in its tryout form while serving as a teacher in an Indiana school where Mr. Puckett was principal. The checksheet enabled the supervisor to leave the teacher's class with a checked card showing exactly who had recited and how many times, who had a chance to do so and didn't, who volunteered and how many times, how many made no contributions, what percentage of the period was consumed by teacher talk and how much by pupil comment, and other such data.

All such creation was abetted by the testing movement, with its parallel development in the quest for objectivity of instructional measurement. No doubt such devices became more popular in the literature than in the classroom itself, even though at times the manipulation of the keys included in such a checksheet as Puckett's might have served the supervisor as an antidote to a dull recitation.

The cards that have been used to rate the general classroom situation have been as elaborate as those used in rating the recitation, such cards at times containing as many as forty-four qualities of the teacher that the critic was expected to judge.⁷ That the principal or supervisor was supposed to note carefully the physical conditions of the room was a reflection of the traditional obligation of administration for the condition of the school building and grounds. Collings, for instance, in his early book on supervision included a classroom management score card for evaluating such conditions, introducing it with this statement:

The Classroom Management Score Card may be used by the supervisor and teacher to measure progress in classroom management. Its use in classrooms indicates the ways of living together performed as well as those omitted. It is, in this sense, a measure of particular strength and weaknesses in the management of classes. In the second place, the score card may be used to measure improvements in the teacher's classroom management. It indicates, in this sense, the progress a teacher makes in overcoming particular management difficulties.⁸

A few of the items to be checked by the supervisor, as listed on this score card, with the values given them, are as follows:

⁶ R. C. Puckett, "Making Supervision Objective," *School Review*, 36 (March, 1928), 2209-212.

⁷ Ellwood P. Cubberley, *The Principal and His School* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1923), pp. 480-482.

⁸ Ellsworth Collings, *Supervisory Guidance of Teachers in Secondary Schools* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934), pp. 137-140. (With permission of the author.)

2. By doing something (a) when called upon, (b) voluntarily
 3. By asking a question
 4. By helping another pupil
 5. By contributing a statement
 6. By paying attention (at stated intervals)
 - B. The number of participants above and below the average intelligence quotient
 - C. The number of responses correct or satisfactory
 - D. The number of responses incorrect or unsatisfactory
 - E. The number of incorrect responses accepted without challenge
 - F. The number of questions asked by the teacher—
 1. Leading questions
 2. "Yes" or "No," or other alternative questions
 3. Factual questions
 4. Requiring thought
 - G. The number of times the teacher repeated an answer
 - H. The number of certain type errors of speech (might have been a check list for each grade)
- III. Presence or Absence of—
- A. Plan book, if required
 - B. Statement of aim or point
 - C. Summary
 - D. Serious digression or wandering
 - E. Serious interruptions
 - F. Adherence to schedule
 - G. An assignment
 - H. A filing system
- IV. Quotation—
- A. Of forms of expression technical to the subject; for example, in second-grade arithmetic, form or forms for subtraction
 - B. Of good questions—and of bad
 - C. Of materials when practicable; for example, the words of the spelling lesson, or a sample problem in the arithmetic lesson
- V. Other objective facts:
- A. Textbook, name of, and page reference
 - B. Additional readings, if any
 - C. Material, other than reading, or apparatus used
 - D. Sample papers for example (perhaps ten chosen at random)
 1. Home work
 2. Done in class
 - E. Concentrating attention on one pupil¹¹

Here again, even if it would be of value later, it would be difficult to imagine the classroom observer being able to gather all the

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 316-317.

data suggested in this list. This list is an example of the influence of the movement toward objective evaluation which was trying to find its true place at the time.

THE OBJECTIVE DIAGNOSIS OF INSTRUCTION AND LEARNING

Paralleling the growth in classroom supervision was the development of objective measurement in education. The 1920-1930 decade was as much given over to the construction and tryout of standardized tests as to the close observation of the classroom. In a sense each movement became the servant of the other.

Supervision, in its strict accounting of teaching procedures, welcomed the aid promised by objective measurement. The measurement of the child's learning seemed a logical means of measuring the instruction of the teacher. In turn, the test makers needed access to the pupil if their work was to have functional value. The research department of the county or city school office was not yet established. And the supervisor's easy access to the classroom marked him as the logical agent of the testing movement. However, just because supervision as a movement welcomed objective measurement does not mean that more than a small minority of supervisors fell in line.

Discovering the strengths and weaknesses of pupils, as individuals and as large groups, became the objective of what came to be called scientific supervision. The journals of the period were filled with discussions of testing procedures and the results of testing surveys in about all subject fields. The administration of intelligence and silent reading tests to large groups of children were relatively simple. Perhaps these two types of tests were utilized more frequently than subject achievement tests.

No doubt there were losses as well as gains for supervision in the use of such instruments. The proper utilization of these standard measurements was difficult for the supervisor. The major source of direction was the graduate course in testing and measurement. Both the possibility of the supervisor's having access to such a course and the possibility of the instruction being adequate were factors of chance. To supervision fell the task of interpreting testing programs to the classroom teachers. A survey of reading ability is relatively easy to administer, but to use the results for the improvement of instruction represents the real test of supervision's use of objective measurement.

Many testing programs have always stopped at the fact-finding stage, with no improvement in learning conditions resulting from the effort. It is the follow-up of testing, not testing itself, that offers supervision a worthy program of action.

Those instructional leaders with an appreciation of the limitations as well as the strengths of these instruments gave considerable help to teachers in judging their progress toward instructional goals. In other cases, tests were misused in a number of ways, such as these: (1) to compare the success of one teacher with another, (2) to use the test score as evidence that a child's lack of success was due to his own shortcomings rather than those of instruction, and (3) to use achievement tests to measure pupil success in courses in which the content of the test was poorly correlated with the instruction in the course.

It was not uncommon for a teacher to teach for a standardized test in those instances in which the supervisory program included odious comparisons of the performance of the classes of the same subject or grade level on a given standardized test used to measure achievement. The greatest value was found in using measurement as a means of helping teachers improve their instructional program. However, it must be admitted that a misguided supervisor could very easily leave the reflection of testing results upon the teacher. Perhaps such a situation can be passed off with the statement that the young supervisory movement had to stumble before it could walk.

Rating scales. With the emphasis upon efficiency of effort it was quite natural that rating scales for evaluating the efficiency of teachers were developed and popularized during this period. The various approaches are treated extensively in the literature from 1925 to 1935. In general they treated teaching skills and the personal characteristics of the teacher as an individual and as a team worker.

The Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association accepted rating scales as standard equipment for administration, and issued an extensive report on the subject of evaluating instruction in 1925. Brueckner's "Scales for the Rating of Teaching Skill" appeared two years later in the *Educational Research Bulletin*. Organizations involving combined teacher effort and endorsement, such as the Michigan Education Association, came out with sample forms to be used in judging teachers. Another was

issued by the Teachers Bureau of the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction.¹²

Even though these scales may seem rigid to the school practitioner of the second half of the twentieth century, underlying their structure is apparent the deep earnestness of the period. This honest attempt to determine objectively how to distinguish good teaching from poor teaching cannot be criticized for its purposes, only for its industrial approach.

Inadequate supervision or teaching? It can readily be seen why in the present revolt against the classroom supervision of the 1910-1935 type, teachers complain that too often it was based upon opinion and expressed in dictates from above. It is quite obvious that the classroom situation which literature has generally described as being supervised is the fixed recitation or one equally as formal. Otherwise, checking devices such as those described here would have commanded far less attention.

The emphasis upon the economics of time in starting the class, making the assignment, calling the roll, and distributing materials reflects not only industrial efficiency but also a formal classroom situation that invited such supervisory theory. That the supervisor was told to tiptoe to the rear of the room lest he attract attention is further evidence that all the blame for such procedures cannot be placed at the door of the supervisor. The antiquity of the teacher's classroom method invited it. Even today when a teacher shudders at supervision, it is well to determine to what extent the ailment is supervision and to what extent the instruction itself.

To what degree supervisors brought it upon themselves, and to what degree they had thus been originally ordained can hardly be determined, but the typical supervision of the period left no doubt as the supervisor's superiority and ability to answer any question about classroom operation. Although ample credit must be given to the good influence this effort exerted upon instruction, there remains the fact that many teachers feigned compliance with the directives from above, while a few hardy souls openly expressed their defiance of such intrusion of their small instructional domains.

¹² See A. S. Barr, *An Introduction to the Scientific Study of Classroom Supervision* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1931), pp. 342-343, 352. (Used by permission of Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc.)

If the early school supervisor this century was afraid to indicate that he didn't know the answer to a teacher's question, he came by it naturally. There was existent the parallel reluctance of the teacher at that time to admit before the class that he didn't know the answer to any question that the pupil might raise pertaining to the subject at hand.

As time went on, much discussion was given to the relative merits of the unannounced classroom visit of the supervisor and the visit upon call. Most school systems came to realize that both had their place in a comprehensive program.

THE CONFERENCE FOLLOWING THE VISIT

For a period of years the follow-up conference was accepted as a standard feature of classroom visitation. Alberty and Thayer expressed the usual opinion with this statement, "Since the supervisory visit is usually only the starting point for stimulating teacher growth, it follows that individual conferences must form an indispensable part of the supervisor's program. Otherwise visitation is reduced to the level of mere inspection."¹⁸

However, it might be reasoned that the conference as sometimes used was an extension of the fault finding that had characterized the classroom visitation. Too many times the conference represented a green-carpet session as distasteful to the teacher as the inspectional visit itself.

At one time in this period, the principles of supervision reached a point of near-standardization in conference procedure. The supervisor was first to commend the good but not to overstep the line that separates such commendation from flattery; otherwise, the teacher would be in no position to accept the criticism to follow. He was next to draw out the teacher as to whether the procedures followed in the classroom would reach the desired ends, and once the victim was trapped criticism was considered in order.

Strange as it may seem, the supervisory formula developed during the period became so highly technical that it provided a code of ethics for the teacher who was being observed. Wagner was one who described this etiquette of the teacher in an article in *Educational Review*. This is a representative paragraph of his advice to teachers:

¹⁸ H. B. Alberty and V. T. Thayer, *Supervision in the Secondary School* (New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1931), p. 194.

Be it ever so artfully done, suggestion of a change from regular work impresses the supervisor with the teacher's unwillingness, perhaps unreadiness, to go on with the regular program. If unreadiness, then unpreparedness, and that is a cardinal sin. No form of flattery of him as a fine speech maker is ever subtle enough to deceive the experienced supervisor. He once was a teacher under supervision. That little subterfuge is quite transparent to him. . . . Instead of fault finding, the careful planning and the faithful carrying out of the plan will be sure to receive praise and commendation, and will thus start kindly thoughts and pleasant expectations from the visit.¹⁴

There is nothing wrong with the idea of an individual conference, arranged by the teacher and the supervisor. As treated in a later chapter, it is one of the more promising means of applying leadership to an individual teaching situation. It is the misuse of the method that has brought discredit to the conference. Its discredit must be placed at the door of its earlier companion, classroom inspection.

The technical approach to classroom observation did not die without a struggle. The forward-looking Alberty and Thayer supervision book, published in 1931, was actually criticized as weak in attempting to keep away from this meticulous conception of the job.¹⁵ It is well to recall that there has never been any evidence produced that would show that teachers do not want classroom supervision. It was the type of classroom visit that caused the consternation. Teachers always have liked the idea of direct help or interest in their classroom work.

The evil aspects of this intensive supervision of teacher action were exposed in a number of other books during the decade, such as the Douglass and Boardman study at the secondary level; and the new work by Barr and Burton, aided by Brueckner.¹⁶ Gradually there emerged a clearer distinction between the good and the evil of that supervisory period that we have chosen to set off as from about 1910 to about 1935.

¹⁴ Charles A. Wagner, "Supervision of Instruction," *Educational Review*, 59 (February, 1920), 140-141.

¹⁵ Alberty and Thayer, *op. cit.* See *Journal of Educational Research*, 28 (April, 1935), 629.

¹⁶ H. R. Douglass and C. W. Boardman, *Supervision in Secondary Schools* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934). A. S. Barr, W. H. Burton, and L. J. Brueckner, *Supervision* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1938; revised 1947).

THE GOOD AND THE BAD OF THE PERIOD

Questionable qualities. The weaknesses of early twentieth century supervision are easily discernible today. Just because they stand out so clearly in sharp contrast to the more enlightened operation of today's schools is no reason for assuming that these errors should not have slipped in thirty or forty years ago. Products of their times, and grotesque in the modern school setting, it is all the more reason that they should find no footing today. Most pronounced among these weaknesses are these six:

1. Supervision's focal point was the personal and professional shortcomings of the individual teacher, with utter disregard for the laws of human nature, conduct, and relationships.
2. Supervision was overefficient, reflecting the willingness to sacrifice human relationships for a few well-formulated technical procedures in the earnest drive to improve classroom instruction.
3. The program was imposed or brought to bear upon the classroom situation rather than growing out of it.
4. It represented a piecemeal program, since its major focal point was the individual classroom. Consequently it lacked co-ordination, as well as orientation in broader and deeper purposes of education.
5. The program was limited largely to the observation and treatment of what takes place within the four walls of a given classroom.
6. Levels of operation were overemphasized, too much concern being shown for authority and control in the interplay of teachers, supervisors, and principals.

There is nothing anti-American about the idea of the supervision of effort, whether that effort be business, governmental, industrial, military, volunteer social, or educational. In school operation the idea is still good, but a modification in operational theories of education has brought with it a clarification of goals and a change in approach. There were some values in these earlier attempts at instructional improvement that bear meaning to present effort.

Modern leadership can salvage from this period of supervision these qualities, to be reconditioned for continued service to instruction:

1. *The recognition of supervision of instruction as an administrative function worthy of the expenditure of school funds for*

personnel. Up until this time school administration had limited its supervisory effort mainly to the physical features of the school plant. Now special personnel, beginning with special supervisors, found a place in the school budget, thus setting a precedent for the extension of such service.

2. *The sincerity of the effort.* There wasn't anything lethargic about the movement. Even though often misguided, the supervisory effort extended at this time still stands as an example for supervisory output. If classroom inspection is really dead, then on the tombstone there should be some indication that in the passing American education lost a sincere even if unloved worker. Those who hold positions of instructional leadership today can still profit by the earnestness of these earlier workers. They worked diligently to overcome the shortages in teacher training and classroom facilities. They helped to overcome the difficulty of meager classroom space as well as that of meager teaching ability. Regardless of the issue of the nature of the supervisor's approach, instruction in American schools improved noticeably during this period. There is ample research to show that the schools of 1935 were doing a noticeably better job than those of 1910.

3. *The interest in the classroom, especially instructional methods.* Although the program was too classroom centered, it is well to remember that the effectiveness of any instructional leadership must eventually be tested by the influence that it exerts upon the teacher-pupil situation. This for the most part has a classroom setting.

4. *The recognition of science as a leading contributor to instructional improvement.* The early misuse of scientific measurement cannot detract from the trial attempts to use diagnostic techniques and objective measurements. Supervision bridged the gap between the laboratory and the classroom, paving the way for the experimental attitude that is accepted in modern school circles.

5. *The use of demonstration teaching in leadership of teachers.* This technique of supervision found great favor in the first two or three decades of this century, and if properly handled will continue to hold a place of esteem. This will be especially true in the leadership of probationary teachers.

One of the best cases made for this era of supervision, with its attention upon the professionalization of the teacher, was that ex-

pressed by Burton in an early study, in which he pointed out these activities as common:

1. The improvement of the teaching act—classroom visits, individual and group conferences, directed teaching, demonstration teaching, development of standards for self-improvement, etc.
2. The improvement of teachers in service—teachers' meetings, professional readings, bibliographies, bulletins, intervisitation, self-analysis and criticism, etc.
3. The selection and organization of subject-matter—setting up objectives, studies of subject-matter and learning activities, experimental testing of materials, constant revision of courses, the selection and evaluation of instructional materials, etc.
4. Testing and measuring—the use of standardized and local tests for classification, diagnosis, guidance, etc.
5. The rating of teachers—the development and use of rating cards, of checklists, stimulation of self-rating.¹⁷

CLASSROOM INSPECTION DISPOSSESSED

The 1930-1940 decade began with a mounting dissatisfaction with supervision and ended with its impeachment by the forces of democratic administration. The prevailing concept could not endure the liberalism of the decade. Apparent was a widespread disposition to view classroom supervision with shame and doubt. So unpopular became the concept, the term itself was shunned by both educational practitioners and writers. The word was deleted from the title of many staff positions in school systems from coast to coast. Articles in educational journals likewise revealed this professional boycott.

One of the more unique surveys indicative of this trend of declining popularity was that made by Shannon in Indiana. His workers carefully scrutinized every article on supervision that appeared in *Education Index* from the first issue in 1929 through February, 1941. They came up with the conclusion that classroom supervision, as judged by its coverage in educational journals, lost ground rapidly during that time. From an average of 97 articles a year issued during the first three years of the period, the output steadily diminished to an average of 50 the last three. There were only 46 in 1939 and 22 issued in 1940.¹⁸

¹⁷ William H. Burton, *Supervision and the Improvement of Teaching* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1922), pp. 9-10. (Used by permission of Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc.)

¹⁸ J. R. Shannon, "Supervision Reaps Its Wild Oats," *School Executive*, 61:5 (January, 1942), p. 29.

This trend of affairs editorially in no way represented a loss of interest in the improvement of instruction. Rather it can be taken as a reluctance of writers in the field to have their names associated with the idea that such improvement could or should be accomplished through a coercive type of leadership. The journals carried even more articles on instructional improvement, and an ever-increasing number of books appeared on the subject. But the approach was not called supervision. By 1935 there was emerging a new period, heralded as democratic administration, and accompanied by such promising companions as *curriculum planning* and *in-service training*—candidates for the supervisory throne that was to be abdicated by *classroom control*.

For Further Consideration

How much responsibility can a supervisor be given without the question of authority having to be raised? How does present classroom supervision avoid the inference of levels of operation that were so apparent in the first third of this century? To what extent was supervision influenced by the testing movement during the period discussed in this chapter? Inasmuch as infrequent supervision often denotes inspection, how frequently must the supervisor visit a teacher to avoid leaving the impression of inspection?

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The Present Expansion of Supervision

WHAT had seemed a simple classroom assignment for supervision early this century turned into an almost complete rout of the staff forces by 1935. The meticulous attack upon classroom operation was definitely rejected. Once school administrators saw the way the democratic wind was blowing, they turned from the inspectional concept of supervision in about the same manner that a group of small boys depart from the environs of a haunted house.

And so the third period of American school supervision came to a gusty end. In fact, many students of the subject persuaded themselves that there was something downright wicked about a principal's or supervisor's pointing out defects in a teacher's classroom. If it were not a criminal act, they reckoned that it could be classified as a breach of professional etiquette, akin to calling attention to a mole on the teacher's face. By 1935 there was somewhat general agreement that it wasn't exactly the democratic thing to do. Since then there has been a concerted effort to extend both the concept and the program of supervision, the characteristics of the effort marking it as a fourth period in the development of American school supervision.

To say that supervisory effort today can be expected to reverse its earlier position completely would be to ignore reality. Such effort is bound to be cumulative to a degree, just as is school practice in general. Historically, supervision had passed through the stages of inspection, teacher training, and scientific classroom management. Now it was ready to enter the stage of co-operative educational leadership.

The Fourth Period—Democratic Supervision

Yankee ingenuity has always been the forte of the American as he faces reverses or new assignments. School administration has shown this same characteristic in setting out to revamp its supervision of instruction. Certain conclusions about the situation came easily. There are apparent three points of general agreement:

1. The major objective of an earlier period—the improvement of instruction—is still at the top of the list, with some shifting of emphasis. Broader interpretations of instruction are noticeable. Since early in this century schools have shown a great concern for elevating the learning situation for the child. The present period represents a rededication to this long-standing objective.

2. A program of supervision built almost wholly for classroom use is too limiting, it is determined. It must reach out for nourishment beyond the teacher-class setting, significant as that setting is. Supervision does not spring from a body of predetermined correct methods of instruction to be applied to the classrooms. It is not a simple matter of diagnosing classroom procedure and prescribing remedies. It is a much broader function that is not to be contained within the classroom walls alone.

3. The program, in all its aspects, must reflect deep concern for human relationships.

Perhaps these three threads represent the warp and the woof of the modern pattern. In the first is found the concern for the child's education, giving meaning and direction to the program. In the second is found the concept of breadth of supervisory activities that are to be used to reach the goal. In the third is found the democratic atmosphere that will give life to the program as it moves toward its goal. Without a doubt the present movement is marching under the banner of *democratic supervision*.

Difficulties encountered. But the simplicity of the present period ends with this introductory statement. A broad program of democratic supervision is more easily stated as a principle than established as a practice. And this is not because of any general authoritarian tendencies among administrators. The great majority of school administrators and supervisors are just as desirous of being democratic as are the great majority of teachers. Only the exceptional one is

hounded by ego or fear to monopolize the policy-making department—to pose as the one with the right answers. Just as only the exceptional teacher runs his classroom as though only his own ideas were the ones worth presenting—as though only his own plans were the ones worth following.

The difficulties of moving toward a new type of instructional leadership may be those naturally encountered in any type of hegira. In escaping from a tight inspectional concept that was centered in the classroom, supervision was bound to wander here, there, and yonder for a time as it exercised its new freedom. It was bound to try this and that practice or program in somewhat willy-nilly fashion as it eagerly sought its new way. In fact, we are still in this period of exploration.

It might be said that American school administration finds itself today very much like a poor man who has suddenly inherited a fortune. It is now in possession of the rich concept commonly known as democratic supervision, and it doesn't know exactly what to do with it. And just like the bewildered newly rich who finds himself surrounded by a multitude of new faces—parties anxious to tie their pet projects onto his soaring kite—so school administration is being surrounded by a multitude of new supervisory faces—parties bearing miscellaneous titles and even more miscellaneous programs. This situation can best be understood by first reviewing one phase of the development of these staff positions—the occasion of their coming.

SUPERVISORS AND THEIR TITLES

The first supervisor. This short account begins early this century with the establishment of the special subject supervisor in the school organization as a position to supplement the principalship and the superintendency. At that time attention was called to the line-and-staff principle of operation (see Chapter 2). It was to facilitate the launching of the supervisor into an already well-fixed school situation.

The clear-cut distinction of duties that is the essence of the principle left the new staff member no chance to wrest authority from the principal. The limits within which the two were to work were well defined. With the authority coming down the line from superintendent to principal to teacher, there could be no doubt about

the teacher's allegiance in case of a conflict in point of view between principal and staff officers.

As long as the instructional scene was inhabited by only these three—supervisor, principal, and teacher—the scope of supervision was simple and the relative position of the parties involved was well marked. But times were to change. The science of pedagogy, as established on the graduate campus, was rapidly spawning new departments or divisions. No longer were there merely administration, supervision, and instruction as fields of study and endeavor. Curriculum, guidance, measurement, research, psychology, and others beckoned for attention. And it was to be expected that this campus effort would in time give birth to related staff positions in the city and county school systems.

New positions. Thirty or forty years ago, when supervision was first settling down in the organizational scheme of things as a service to the classroom teacher, a supervisor was a supervisor. Today, when supervision is attaching itself to almost anything that has to do with furthering learning, a supervisor masquerades under a miscellaneous array of titles. Supervision today often travels incognito. Added to the instructional staff in our time have been the curriculum coordinator, the guidance director, the research director, the psychologist, the psychiatrist, the child development officer, the home teacher, the counselor, the atypical supervisor, the general supervisor, and the director of instruction, among others.

The original position of supervisor of a special subject or a special school level is now almost lost in a network of staff positions, which by salary, if not by authority, are stationed between teacher and superintendent. Their significance lies especially in an ever-broadening concept of supervision—of the improvement of the learning situation.

The stigma of the term supervisor. Part of this multiplicity of titleships reflects the inclination of school administration to purge itself of the evils of inspectional supervision by wiping out the title of supervisor. During the period of transition in concept, it was not uncommon for a large school system to take advantage of the retirement of a supervisor with a replacement bearing a different title.

Typical of the all-out attacks upon supervision, which were discrediting even the title, is the following from Reeder's administrative text. Since the first edition of the book was issued in 1930, it can be

assumed that it was the situation of that time which was being treated.

Although still important, the emphasis on supervision has been giving way during recent years to greater emphasis on other agencies for in-service preparation of teachers. The prime test of the efficacy of supervision is whether it exercises leadership and whether there develops from such leadership a better type of education for pupils. Unless supervision contributes to securing for the pupils a better type of education, it is a parasite and a debauchery of public funds. Teachers testify that the aforementioned standards are not always kept in mind by the supervisors under whom they worked. They affirm that it is directed too much toward them and not sufficiently toward the learning situation.

They state that it is always directed toward their weaknesses and seldom toward trying to make their strengths stronger. They complain that a large part of the so-called supervision is inspection only. . . . They further complain that too much supervision is based upon opinion, that it is expressed in dictates from above, and that it is destructive and discouraging rather than constructive and encouraging.¹

Barr and his coauthors were among those who emphasized the replacement of the term supervisor with some such title as "educational assistant, technical assistant, or instructional assistant," with "consultant" and "adviser" suggested as alternatives for the term "assistant."² Looking down the lists of staff positions in city and county school systems today, the terms "director" and "co-ordinator" are frequently found. The latter has been especially popular since it denotes the spirit of modern instructional leadership. "Resource leader" or "resource teacher" has been used, but it is cumbersome as a permanent title. "Resource person" as a term is more readily available for short conference procedure. New Jersey, as a state, jumped to the front as early as 1916 by establishing "helping teacher" as their official state supervisory title.

There have been many hard things said about classroom supervision, and no doubt there are many yet to be uttered before the democratic ideal is fully reached. However, it must be remembered that the meaning of the concept—supervision—was falsified not so much by malicious tampering as by the overdevotion of school

¹ Ward G. Reeder, *The Fundamentals of Public School Administration* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951), p. 160. (First edition, 1930.)

² A. S. Barr, W. H. Burton, and L. J. Brueckner, *Supervision* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1947), p. 15. (Used by permission of Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc.)

administration to efficiency. The position of supervisor has been singularly free from any sort of pettiness or meanness. In our enthusiasm for discrediting an earlier pattern of operation, we should guard against crediting the position with the ability to manipulate teachers and classrooms.

Staff to help the child. The significance of these new positions is much deeper than either a change in titles or the addition of new ones. It was finally recognized that the improvement of learning was to be accomplished by creating staff positions to help the child directly, in addition to those supervisory positions set up to help the child by working through the teacher. This is a highly significant point in the extension of school administration and supervision this century. The extension of the school's interest into the total environment of the pupil meant the extension of supervision accordingly. Only by appreciating this turn of affairs, which began quite a few years back, can the student of education expect to find his way through the maze of staff activities that now supplement the instructional endeavor of the teacher and the administrative endeavor of superintendent or principal.

Relationship of positions. As these newer teacher-helpers and pupil-helpers were added, the administration again got out the old line-and-staff principle, dusted it off, and bent it here and there to try to encompass all the new staff members. But the definition of relationships, responsibilities, and authority is not so simple as the elementary diagrams in Chapter 2 would indicate. Any of us who have worked in the central office of a large school system realize the futility of trying to complete such a job. Major working relationships, reflecting responsibility and authority, are usually well understood, but the multitude of activities of a large staff defies any pencil-and-paper mastery of organizational detail. The instructional leadership exerted by such a staff represents a flexible force that shifts with the demands of the job and the turnover in the personnel. There is a declining concern for lines of authority and precedence of position.

The deluge of miscellaneous staff officers in school administration in our time did not come by chance. Perhaps just about every one of these new positions can be traced to limitations in the instruction of the child, the improvement of which has been the province of

supervision. They group themselves into divisions by function.

1. *Guidance positions.* These staff positions came into the schools as a reflection of the scientific study of the nature of the learner. They include the guidance director, the psychiatrist, the psychologist, the home teacher, and the counselor, among others. Even the dean of boys and the dean of girls in the high school are positions that emphasize out-of-class direct help for the pupil as one means of improving his learning situation. Twenty years ago it was common for the high school dean of boys or dean of girls to teach two or three classes. Since then, one after another the larger schools have relieved the deans from all classroom teaching, not to make supervisors of them in the absence of such, but to give them duties in keeping with a growing concern for personality and the differences among children. This entire effort has come to be known as guidance.

2. *Research positions.* Closely related to the function of guidance is that represented by research. In a school system with research facilities, at times this effort is concentrated on instructional situations. However, this attempt to judge the merits of curriculum materials and methods is not the usual function of such departments. Ordinarily school research deals with judging pupil potentialities and measuring pupil accomplishment. Consequently, such service is tied closely into guidance, where a premium is placed upon a knowledge and understanding of the individual pupil.

3. *Curriculum positions.* A third group of staff workers who now supplement the original supervisory force is the curriculum department. At times represented by a single staff member, at times by a large staff touching the various fields and grade levels, and at times by a consultant from the nearby college campus, curriculum planning as the improvement of instruction has moved into the local school office, and is there to stay. Only a few years ago it hung out its shingle on supervisory lane, and within this short time has built up quite a reputation for treating the ailing classroom.

More so than in the case of guidance and research positions, the creation of curriculum positions represented a definite dissatisfaction with the existing instructional program. It follows that it likewise must have represented some dissatisfaction with the instructional leadership that had previously existed in the school systems. To quite a degree, special subject supervisors had been brought in earlier in

the century to strengthen an existing instructional program, not to change or correct it. Curriculum planning as a principle implies inadequacies in program, and suggests improvement through the proper leadership of teachers.

4. *In-service training.* The current drive for the improvement of learning has a fourth new front that has been added to the original single operation of classroom supervision. Known as in-service training, it is much less distinct than the other three divisions just mentioned. Worthy of attention because the term in-service is commonly used, the exact delimitation of the concept seems almost impossible. In purpose it is well defined, meaning the professional growth of the teacher while on the job. In program it draws upon curriculum planning, classroom supervision, graduate study, and a multitude of other organized endeavors of teachers and staff. Any further discussion will be left to later chapters devoted to the topic.

THE RANGE OF SUPERVISORY POSITIONS

That large city and county systems have set up a network of varied staff positions is not strange. This tendency was bound to come sooner or later. It reflects the principle of division of labor and its refinement, specialization, that is common to America's economic system.

There follows a random sampling of the various titles held by today's staff of supervisory workers. This list represents the actual titles of some of the supervisory personnel in the city and the county school offices in California. The list reflects the division of labor and the specialization of agent so evident in school organization today. It likewise reveals the prominence of terms substituted for the word supervisor—namely co-ordinator, director, and consultant. It is intentionally long to show the great variation in titles, so often representing slight variation in word order rather than in actual title.

Co-ordinator of secondary education
Director of research and guidance
Co-ordinator of curriculum
Curriculum director
Supervisor of primary education
General supervisor of instruction
Supervisor of testing and evaluation
Supervisor of speech education
Elementary consultant and secondary
co-ordinator

Director, audio-visual aids
Co-ordinator of audio-visual education
Director of audio-visual aids and general supervisor
Head supervisor
Director of instructional aids
Supervisor of library and textbook section
Director of instructional materials division and audio-visual co-ordinator

- Supervisor of audio-visual education
Co-ordinator and supervisor of instruction
Curriculum co-ordinator
Supervisor of elementary education
Consultant in elementary education
Director of elementary education
Director of education
Director, research and guidance
Curriculum consultant
Director of instruction
Co-ordinator and director of curriculum
Co-ordinator of special services
Secondary school co-ordinator
Consultant in health education and physical education
Art elementary co-ordinator and consultant
Co-ordinator of building trades
Co-ordinator, distributive education
Rural supervisor
Elementary co-ordinator
Supervisor of public relations
Supervisor of science section
Supervisor of science and mathematics
Co-ordinating consultant
Science co-ordinator
Supervisor grades 7 and 8
Demonstration teacher
Co-ordinator of curriculum of secondary education
Supervisor of industrial arts
Co-ordinator, special services
Secondary co-ordinator
Director of special education and consultant in reading
Consultant in mental hygiene and education of the mentally retarded
Director of secondary instruction and co-ordinator of child welfare
Director of child welfare and student personnel
Co-ordinator of child welfare
Supervisor of elementary and junior high school subjects
Director of industrial arts
Supervisor of health and physical education
Co-ordinator of adult education
Co-ordinator of instructional materials
Director of elementary and secondary libraries
Co-ordinator of elementary audio-visual education
Supervisor of music
Supervisor of elementary music
Supervisor of instrumental music
Consultant in music education
Director of secondary education
Supervisor of attendance and instruction
School psychologist
Educational statistician
Director, texts and libraries
Co-ordinator of personnel
Art supervisor
Assistant in instruction
Director of art education
General supervisor
Co-ordinator of elementary education
Primary supervisor
Helping teacher
Supervisor, kindergarten and first
Curriculum supervisor
Kindergarten co-ordinator and general supervisor
Supervisor of instruction
Supervisor of guidance
Consultant in child guidance
Director of guidance and educational research
Director of special education and guidance
Co-ordinator of guidance
Director of special services
Supervisor
Director of guidance in elementary schools
Director of music
Research director
Co-ordinator of health, physical education, and recreation
Home economics co-ordinator
Director of curriculum and instruction
Assistant co-ordinator of elementary education
Supervisor of testing evaluation
Co-ordinator of mental trades
Director of physical education
Supervisor of physically handicapped
Supervisor of atypical classes

UNIFYING INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

As school systems expand the supervisory function, they work at the job of unifying the various positions of service which emerge with the broadened concept. School administration recognized this danger of diverted effort some years back, and has attempted to unify services in various ways. Among the more common attempts at this that have been in evidence for a decade or so are:

1. Regular meetings of directors, supervisors, and principals to discuss policy.
2. Regular meetings of central office staff and teachers to discuss policy and program.
3. The creation of a school policies council, made up of representatives of line, staff, and teaching groups.
4. Changing the title of supervisor to that of co-ordinator.
5. Changing the title of supervisor to that of consultant.
6. The creation of a curriculum council, to co-ordinate all leadership in the instructional field.
7. The centralization of supervisory effort under one or more key instructional positions.
8. The careful designation in the central office of days of the week or month to be used for meetings of particular groups, thus avoiding conflicts and protecting time of teachers and supervisory force.
9. For the purpose of guiding instructional leadership and practice, the development of a sound educational philosophy by the entire school family.

THE MODERN CONCEPT OF SUPERVISION

By reviewing the miscellaneous services of the central office staff in city after city, county after county, and state after state, one comes to an understanding of the current interpretation of school supervision. This interpretation is not a definition; it is an active program in operation in America's schools. It might be stated in one sentence: *Supervision has gradually moved from the improvement of instruction to the improvement of learning.*

There is a distinct difference between the two concepts of improving instruction and improving learning, as far as staff help is

concerned. Instruction is by far the more limiting of the two. It centers attention upon the teaching effort. Consequently, help that is to be given by a staff member is likewise centered upon the instructional effort. Because the teaching act takes place in the classroom, the major portion of the supervisory effort is exerted at that point. As was reviewed in Chapter 4, supervision that limits itself to the improvement of instruction treats such factors as the teaching plan, the teacher's application of the curriculum, the methods and techniques used, the materials assembled by the teacher, and similar instructional steps.

Learning as a supervisory approach has a much broader base than instruction. It centers attention upon the pupil's development. Consequently, it has to do with all the major factors in the learning situation, such as the teacher's effort, the pupil's nature and effort, the curriculum, the materials of instruction, and even the more remote conditions affecting the learning of any given child. In calling for staff help in improving learning, the help must go far beyond the teaching act itself. It is this concept that has made a place for all the miscellaneous staff members added in recent years. From the Oklahoma State Department of Education comes this statement of a similar point of view:

Supervision includes the improvement of every phase of the educational program, such as the organization of programs of studies, the revision of curricula, the instructional procedures, the pupil activity program, and the non-instructional activities of staff members.³

This broadening of the foundation of supervision that is found out in the schools is likewise revealing itself in on-campus studies of the subject. The graduate student who expects to secure a master's degree in school administration, or an administrative credential from his state department of education, finds that in his study a course or two in curriculum must supplement the required course in supervision. Often the course in tests and measurements is likewise a requirement.

Graduate students treating supervision at times would indicate almost no limit to the function and breadth of the program. For instance, one group has listed all these as the concerns of the program:

³ Oklahoma State Department of Education, *Annual High School Bulletin* (Oklahoma City: the Department, 1952), p. 92.

Helping teachers—

- to recognize educational issues, responsibilities, and opportunities,
- to understand children and adolescents,
- to understand the role of the school in the community,
- to formulate a sound philosophy of education for a democratic society,
- to plan and develop resource and teaching units in terms of pupil needs, abilities, and interests,
- to utilize effectively curriculum materials, including audio visual materials,
- to improve instructional techniques,
- to improve means and procedures of evaluation,
- to coordinate their efforts through more effective participation in the group process of democratic relationships,
- to interpret the educational program and needs to the public,
- to orient themselves to the school and the community, and
- to maintain good physical, mental, and emotional health.¹

Boiled down to major items, this list would ask staff help and leadership for teachers in (1) classroom supervision, (2) curriculum development, (3) testing and evaluation, (+) the psychological study of the children, (5) audio-visual materials, (6) personal orientation, and (7) public relations. This is a far cry from the 1910 assignment of a supervisor who was sent out to help a teacher in the techniques of a given subject such as art, music, or English. It is yet to be determined to what extent such varied ideals for staff leadership can be achieved. A few practical questions come to mind as theory stakes a broader and broader claim for supervision.

In attempting to atone for the sins of its early forebears, present-day supervision is attaching itself to about anything that has to do with learning. Does it run the danger of losing its distinction as a service to teachers?

To what extent can public schools afford to provide the various special staff departments to work with teachers in the miscellaneous areas included in this prevailing concept?

If a school system cannot provide a varied staff, to what degree can a limited staff be expected to serve as a jack of all supervisory trades? Where would service be provided first, in the classroom, in curriculum planning, or in treating the child?

What share of the teacher-growth-in-service assignment should be left to outside agencies such as the graduate school of education?

¹ Clarence Fielstra, "Supervision Today," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, 34:174 (December, 1950), pp. 14-15.

At one extreme is to be found the large city system with its miscellaneous staff services. At the other is the small district which needs to be considered realistically rather than either idealistically or pessimistically. Faced with the shortage of administrative assistants, the superintendent carries a heavy burden of operational detail. Faced with shortages of supervisory staff, he is forced to forget instruction or choose between neglect of administrative detail and application of ingenuity. Needless to say, some superintendents of small districts seem to forget instruction, some steal time from detail to attend to it, and some show real ingenuity in tapping other resources for instructional service.

It is apparent that the present period is going to be one of broad claims and varied efforts. The learning process and its setting constitute an extremely broad field of study and practice. Supervision can become so oriented toward the generalities of education and society that it will lose any distinction other than that of do-gooder. Those programs that are going to be most effective will be characterized by a limitation of effort in keeping with the availability of personnel and the reasonability of accomplishment. In Chapter 7, in organizing the school for supervision, we must face this problem of a concept so broad that it defies systematic provision and coordination of services to teachers. It is well for supervision to be concerned with the improvement of learning rather than merely the improvement of instruction, but it is to be noted that the teacher is still going to be the final judge of its accomplishments. Unless it stays close to the problems of teachers, supervision is lost. No fine phrases of intent could save it.

THE HUMAN FACTOR IN EFFICIENCY

It was noted in the earlier chapters that classroom management aped the scientific management of American industry. There was a persistent drive to get classroom production down to proven formulas and processes, to be applied wholesale over an entire school system—and even over the entire land.

While industry studied scientifically how the daily tonnage of coal being loaded into cars could be increased by a reduction in the size of the shovels the men were using, schools studied just as meticulously the influence of the teacher's classroom instruments and movements upon the loading of the children's minds.

Classroom methodology. The interest of the researchers in the instructional effectiveness of the size of the class was matched by studies in the time-saving procedures for the opening and the closing of the class period. Studies in the collection and distribution of papers in the high-school classroom were matched by studies in the most effective distribution of marks among the pupils. Elementary teachers were given uniform directions for their display of pupils' materials on the walls of the rooms, as faith mounted in uniform procedures.

Various methods of conducting a class were advanced with deep-seated convictions. For instance, the prescribed steps of the Morrisonian method of instruction were always all to be followed, and in the original order, regardless of teacher, school, or locality.

Research. Graduate schools of education made harvest of the quest for efficiency. They fell in line by placing more and more emphasis upon scientific research. Each person worthy of the higher degree had to show that he could conduct a piece of research worthy of general acceptance by school practitioners. It was implied that to do research would more fully impress the school operator with values of applying research back in his home school. Graduate school officials spent much time in studying the scientific effectiveness of their instruments of research.

For a brief period of time, in this relentless drive for efficiency, school administration in supervising the classroom process seemed willing to overlook the self-respect and identities of teachers. To find the proven procedure was far more impelling in supervision than to find the personality or the ingenuity of a teacher.

THE TURNING POINT

But a change was bound to come; and it has come. Interestingly enough, it came to industry and to education at about the same time. It was discovered that in this impersonal drive for better techniques, either industry or organized schooling finally arrives at a point where greater "efficiency" no longer yields greater or more effective output.

It was discovered that somebody had ignored the personal factor—the human equation. The efficiency period in school supervision had placed procedure before personality. The teacher had been caught in the machine and had become just another moving part in

the mechanism. The period had reduced the teacher in pedagogical stature. He was reduced to a middleman, to use on the pupil the instructional techniques approved and passed on to him by the supervisor.

The change in both industrial and school operation has come quietly but surely. It is a profound change. It represents the discovery of the importance of the human factor. Instead of laboring at the more mechanical aspects of production efficiency, industry has moved toward better working conditions for employees. In business and industry, fear, fatigue, and frustration have given way to rest periods, suggestion boxes, and deep respect for human relations. The time break for coffee has become a national institution in itself. Good human relationships stand at the top of supervision in either American business or American schooling.

Feeling like doing a good job is a prerequisite for a good instructional program, and it cannot be made up for by a knowledge of proper procedures, as valuable as such knowledge is. Enthusiasm, initiative, and ingenuity are now prominent as essentials to teaching. The classroom has been rescued from the mechanics of the thing and given back to the teacher. The right to co-operate in the selection of materials and methods is the right of every teacher. The right to help determine instructional destinations is the right of every teacher. The installation of the findings of research calls for group action.

Supervision can still respect research, can be experimental, and can be objective, without casting the teacher in the role of an automaton. Our reliance in America has always been on the inquiring mind, and this source of our strength must be protected by the instructional leadership that we supply to our classrooms. These things represent the human touch that is so prevalent in school operation today.

For Further Consideration

Are there specific differences between the concepts of supervision and instructional leadership? Is there evidence that the leadership approach is less democratic by supervisors than it is by those staff members who carry titles such as co-ordinator and helping teacher? Is there evidence that the extension of the school's interest into the total environment of the pupil has meant the extension of supervision accordingly? Is in-service training merely another name for supervision? If a school system

cannot provide a varied staff for instructional service to teachers, where should supervisory service be provided first? Has the efficiency period in school supervision passed? Does supervision respect research?

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The Human Touch

AS STATED in the previous chapter, three signposts mark the present direction of supervision: (1) the goal is still the improvement of instruction, with the interpretation reflecting the improvement of learning, (2) the program is much more extensive than staff help in the classroom, and (3) the program reflects deep concern for human relationships. It is this third characteristic that gives the movement its true concern for democratic values. That the program shall function in a democratic manner seems to be competing for prominence with the improvement of instruction as a major goal of supervisory effort. Staff leadership is being examined at every turn, to make sure that refuge is not being given to authoritarian procedures.

THE CONCERN FOR HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS

Leadership and co-operation. No subject has challenged the pen and vocal chords of the educator during the past twenty years as has the subject of democratic school operation. He has filled the educational journals and the shelves of his professional library as he has pleaded with the school to promote to the fullest the democratic ideal, to set the true pattern of democratic action for the nation. Some of these discussions of democratic values have been quite technical. As an example can be cited the attempt to reconcile the principles of leadership and co-operation.

One such treatment is found in the Eleventh Yearbook of the supervisors' national organization.¹ Differences between *leadership*

¹ Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, *Cooperation, Principles and Practices*, Eleventh Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1938), pp. 18-32.

TABLE 2

LEVELS AND TYPES OF CO-OPERATION²*Arranged in order of probable evolutionary development and complexity*

No.	Level or Type of Co-operation	Scale Value	Motivation, Desire for	Effect on Those Working Together under the Given Conditions
1	Reaction	0	None, mechanistic action only	None
2	Involuntary	1	Individual achievement	None, because agent and effect are too widely separated to be recognized as related
3	Impulsive	2	Satisfaction in expression	Varied depending on nature of impulse
4	Individualistic			
	a. Division of work	3	Immediate achievement	Satisfaction, friendship
	b. Combination of forces	4	Immediate achievement	Satisfaction, friendship
5	Assistance			
	a. Exploitation	5	Selfish benefit	Indignation, contempt, revenge
	b. Compulsion	6	Selfish benefit or desire to control behavior of others	Fear, hatred, revenge
	c. Compromise	7	Necessity	Impatience, resentment, contempt
	d. Bargaining	8	Mutual benefit	Personal satisfaction in achievement, friendship, growth, social consciousness
	e. Good will	9	Sympathy for others	Friendships, affection
6	Competency	10	Need for expert assistance	Gratitude, respect, affection
7	Leadership	11	Individual and social progress	Respect, honor, devotion
8	Democratic	12	Unity with complete self-expression through the group and group welfare	Creative growth, social sensitivity, joy, security, love

Key: By co-operation is meant any "working together" by human beings, whether results are achieved voluntarily or involuntarily.

² *Ibid.*, p. 21. By permission of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

as a person and leadership as a function are discussed. Table 2, taken from that study, traces eight levels of co-operation. This statement is made of the two highest on the scale, leadership and democratic co-operation:

Leadership as a person. In leadership, one man becomes sensitive to the needs of the group and formulates plans by which these needs may be met. He himself, however, is not able, single-handed, to bring about the achievement. Accordingly he presents his goals and suggestions to others and tries to interest them in his plans. To the degree that he is successful, a group of like-minded persons forms and begins to operate under the direction of the leader.

The functions of a leader are to stimulate, to co-ordinate, to direct, and to encourage. So long as the faith in the leader is sustained, the group work together to achieve the common goal, but if events prove the leader incompetent or mistaken, membership falls away. There is no compulsion; each person is free to come or go, but while he is a member of the group he recognizes the dominance of the leader and follows his directions. The co-operation of leadership is the highest type generally found in practical affairs. In the teaching profession the role of the administrative officer as leader is frequently stressed.

Leadership as a function. A still higher type of co-operation is possible, however. It will be called democratic co-operation. On this level every member would be group conscious and think of himself only as an organ or agent of the group. Each member would voluntarily carry as full responsibility for leadership and creative thinking as a leader does, and would also be ready to act under direction as a follower when group planning was at an end. There would be no officers nor organization except for purposes of co-ordination, execution, and record as determined by the group. Each member would will for each other member that member's highest good and give freely of his own services to help secure that highest good. His own wishes and desires are not put aside but are given by him neither more nor less weight than those of any other member of the group. Leadership would be a function, not a person, and would pass from person to person as anyone had a creative suggestion to make.

PRINCIPLES OF DEMOCRATIC ADMINISTRATION

It is not to be assumed that democracy in American school operation did not exist until such pronouncements as the above appeared in 1938. Rather, it was the clarification of the principles of democratic school administration which then rose to popularity for the first time. Among those principles, repeatedly revealed in the literature since then, are these:

1. Administration and supervision are agencies serving the teaching-learning situation.
2. Administrators and staff members are resource persons contributing to the improvement of that situation.
3. Theirs is the responsibility for providing opportunities for teachers to determine purposes and plan procedures.
4. Theirs is the responsibility for co-ordinating the activities of these groups and for executing their planning.
5. Thus group leadership takes precedence over position, and co-operation over central directive.

Many of the writers on the subject have not been content to limit their work to the clarification of democratic leadership. They have proceeded to imply general authoritarian methods among administrators and supervisors, and to point out the road for the transgressor. For instance, in the yearbook just cited this statement is found: "As public schools are now organized, power and control reside essentially in administrative and supervisory agents. The principles of democracy demand that power and control be transferred from a few individuals and become the function of the entire group. It will require persons of considerable vision, courage, and faith to realize that such a redirection of organization and control will greatly enrich and extend the administrative and supervisory functions rather than detract from them. Nevertheless, such a concept is badly needed."³

THE BALANCE OF POWER

Power, control, and responsibility. Perhaps the words power and control have been called upon too freely in describing the position of a teacher with a group of children and that of a school administrator with a staff of teachers. Perhaps in our eagerness to assure school operation the co-operative atmosphere that it requires, we have drawn upon fear-words such as power and control to describe the authoritarian abyss that is to be avoided. The words imply a lust for authority. They imply disregard of the rights of man.

It cannot be said too often that it is responsibility, not power, that must be invested in a position. No administrator, no teacher, no supervisor can do his work without assuming the full respon-

³ *Ibid.*, p. 85.

sibility of the post. As to power, it has no place in either the concept of classroom operation or that of the supervision of the work of the teachers. As to control, children grow through sharing it. The maximum potential of a teacher is released by sharing it.

Examples of exercising authority. It is true that now and then the distinctions in these three—power, control, and responsibility—come hazily, if at all. For instance, take the case of a high school English teacher in establishing her position with a new class the first week of the term. She assigned a theme to be written in class. One student who wrote a two-page original essay was given an "F" on the paper. He questioned the mark. The teacher reminded him that she had told the class that three errors in grammar or punctuation would mean failure. The student had used commas to mark off three clauses which the teacher thought called for semicolons, or vice versa. There was no court of appeal.

In this case the teacher exercised power and control, but she neglected her responsibility for teaching. She set arbitrary requirements, and in her control of the situation she ignored human values as well as the known principles of learning. She was so afraid that she wouldn't establish early in the class that she was a "hard teacher," she gladly traded her responsibility to instruction for the power of authority. Once she was perched on the throne of authority, she dared her pupils to get a good mark in her class. And all the while, the more noble pedestal of instructional helper was vacant.

A board of education had given a superintendent the responsibility of setting up conditions that would assure the children and youth a maximum education. The superintendent had divided that responsibility with principals and supervisors. They in turn had left much of the responsibility for instructional procedures with the individual teachers. With responsibility had gone control. If the superintendent had been required to report to the public's trustees on this class, he would have had to say that only the control and not the responsibility for teaching had been accepted.

Such examples can always be found of superintendents, principals, supervisors, and teachers who confuse control or power with responsibility. However, the instances are in the minority, and school operation in general reveals the desire to carry out the instructional obligation under conditions reflecting good human relationships.

When they do arise in the classrooms, the time that the principal might have been spending in supervising instruction is diverted to handling the public relations problems caused by the teacher's action.

THE MECHANICS OF CO-OPERATION

It is true that Americans in all walks of life have refined in recent years their ways of working together. The effort of the school people in this has been in keeping with a general trend. Perhaps it seems more pronounced in this field because (1) our editorial output is far greater than that in most occupational fields, and (2) we are naturally inclined to read heavily in our own professional literature, and have little reason to know the literature in other occupational fields. On all fronts—not just the school front—there is noted the tendency for co-ordination, co-operation, service, stimulation, and participation to nudge out inspection, dictation, imposition, criticism, and coercion.

This refinement of the group process has not been limited to those in administrative or supervisory positions. It was paralleled by the teacher's elevation of the pupil to planner in the classroom. As compared to an earlier day, democratic procedures are much more pronounced now in both teaching and supervisory situations. This holds true of the home and the business house as well. This all reflects a greater common knowledge of the co-operative techniques. Requesting the ideas of the many, pooling this judgment, and acting upon fact rather than upon power or feeling are commonly accepted ways for groups to work. Add to these the initiative and the ingenuity that good leadership releases, wherever found, and schools will continue to move ahead.

The science of the thing. As in the case of almost all promising movements, in the extension of the use of the co-operative process there is the danger of riding the pendulum to an academic extreme. There is the danger of forming a cult more devoted to the study of the process itself than to its functional use in improving instruction. For a detachment of the school force to go in this direction would be nothing new. For instance, for years the first grade of the elementary school was run as though it were an end in itself instead of being a means to the young child's development. Earlier this century, as many as a fourth of the children were failed in first grade, indicating the school's devotion to a set curriculum rather

than its devotion to the nature and the welfare of the child. What first grade was, seemed to have been more important than what first grade was for. Form overshadowed function.

There is also the case of that portion of the high school English teachers who for years have been more devoted to the study of formal grammar itself than to the functional use of the native language in helping the student to express his ideas. They have been willing to diverge from the original course of effort to make a science of the study of our language.

And likewise, there is a detachment of the school force who seem to be attempting to make a science of the democratic way of working together. A science always has its unique terminology by which the practitioners are able to exchange their ideas. A vocabulary—relatively strange for the novice—has been presented to the supervisor within recent years as the verbal tools needed by him to release the group process for his everyday use of it in working with teachers. He reads of and hears about power-based planning and collective self-control, of we-ness and open-ended goals, of association-pattern and stars of attraction, of sociometric analysis and sociogrammatic treatment, of ego-involvement and group climate, of emotional tone and free-floating attention, of feeling tone and I-centeredness, of emotional rhythm and structuring, of group metabolism and coactive power, and of social climates and permissive atmosphere.

The sincerity of the mission into group dynamics and the inner darkness of undemocratic group procedures cannot be questioned. Only the intensity of effort upon the scientific theory of co-operation is questioned here. Does the supervisor need to submerge himself in the sea of terminology to be cleansed of authoritarian tendencies or to be possessed of the ability to work democratically with teachers and other professional associates? We in teaching have always been able to coin new terms and discard old ones faster than we have been able to achieve the true goals of teaching.

Nobody can determine at this time the merits of the intensities of present trends in supervisory activity, such as this one of the study of group processes. It is well to recall at this point that supervisory theory and effort have but recently launched out into a fourth period of development. Nobody can yet foresee the extent or the ramifications of this fourth movement. Nobody can really

weigh the worth of its various features. This must await the educational historian of tomorrow. Only he can determine the supervisory take at the group dynamics gate through which all supervisors are asked to pass. With all of its promise, two dangers face the present movement: that of losing itself in its multifarious program and that of diverting its energy to the intensive study of group processes. Processes must not be turned into idols for their irrational worship.

THE GROUP PROCESS

Leaders wish to protect group members against such common frustrations as arguments between members, the person who monopolizes the time, the one who is indifferent to the whole thing, and similar participation difficulties. These represent problems of working together, and have nothing to do with the problem that originally brought the group together.

To what extent should the members divert their attention from the original purpose to the mechanics of working together? That is, to what extent should they be concerned with the group process itself? There is no ready answer to this question. What seems right in one situation may not seem so in another. However, it can be said that the supervisory leader is the one who should command the most insight into the process.

The participation and co-operation of teachers in all aspects of school operation has arrived and is here to stay. Steps that school leaders are taking to assure a maximum of such participation are extensive enough to be surveyed for basic principles. The approach to group planning need not be lost in the science of the thing. Neither does the approach need to be one of trial and error. Some basic principles and practices are listed here with no attempt being made to draw sharp distinctions between the two.

1. Any faculty or group has an inner capacity or potential for accomplishment. That capacity may be developed through practice under proper leadership.

2. The supervisory leader may act as an outside force to effect group action, or he may associate himself with the group and act as an inner worker to help the group exercise its capacity. The latter is the co-operative approach and has proven more effective.

The leader is actually a member of the group rather than a detached individual elevated above it.

3. This merger with the group does not deprive the supervisory leader of his responsible position. His responsibility shifts from that of right answers and directives to one of right action in helping the group to achieve its potential. He is responsible for setting up and protecting a group situation so that leadership may emerge.

4. Co-operative action calls for practice and accepted purpose on the part of the group. Relinquishing or sharing the leadership function is not always easy for the one in the supervisory capacity. The group may be inexperienced in such democratic procedures. For the supervisory leader to relinquish responsibility before the group is in a position to assume it may be wasteful. But if he does not have confidence in the capacities of the group, he can never achieve the group leadership that he seeks.

5. He shows his leadership by helping the group to clarify its goals, to develop its plans, to collect data needed in making decisions, and to use democratic procedures. Strong initial dependence upon the appointed leader for direction is natural.

6. The group should understand clearly the thing that has brought them together. The waste of manpower that comes in the early meetings of a group that doesn't know exactly its purposes may represent a false start that can never be overcome. The good leader first works toward common clarification of the goals, and then tackles the problem of joint agreement on the procedures to be followed in tackling the job. He helps the group to recognize the difficulties to be overcome in the course of the work. This means an appraisal of factors. Supervisory leadership loses status when it permits a group to work itself up a blind alley just because of inadequate planning at the start.

7. In the early stages of a group's action, the supervisory leader's ideas may be accepted because of his status, regardless of his desire. In time, if he strives for personality equality, his views will be judged on their merits. In time group leadership overtakes individual leadership.

8. Group participation calls for frequent assemblage of those who make up the group. Mimeographed reports to the members and the collection of individual ballots on a question of importance are not substitutes for assemblage.

9. The supervisory leader needs to guard against his impatience when the group is not at his level of understanding. This impatience may show itself when he is sure of what should be done and is eager for the group to arrive at the same conclusion. On the other hand, instructional ineffectiveness breeds under the influence of supervisory complacency. Good leadership is able to draw the distinction between impatience and complacency.

10. In leading a group, he does everything possible to build up in the members the feeling that their ideas are the important thing. Individual participants may have difficulty in following the ideas of others. What one person says is not necessarily what another hears. The statement of a participant passes through the screens of experience of its respective members, no two receiving sets being alike. The leader repeats, fills in, and throws back by using such statements as these:

"Correct me if my statement does not express the idea that you have presented."

"If you will both give your points again, we can all compare them more easily."

"Explain that again, please."

11. The supervisory leader must protect the group from itself. For instance an individual member may act as an internal disruptive force. Or a small faction may take upon itself the responsibility of speaking for the whole group or usurping the power. The threat of dictation is not necessarily erased when the supervisory leader relinquishes his own authority on a matter in favor of group leadership.

12. It is not easy to distribute leadership throughout a group or to bring forth true group leadership. An occasional vote on some matter or other is far from the true realization of this concept.

It has been pointed out by Jenkins that "the weakest link in a group is probably not a person, but a relationship between two people, or between a person and a group."⁴ The contribution of a

⁴ David H. Jenkins, "Training in Being an Effective Group Member," *School of Education Bulletin* (Ann Arbor: the University of Michigan), 21:2 (November, 1949), p. 26.

person is conditioned by his manner and the attitudes that he implies when he makes his comments. It is conditioned by previous conceptions of this person held by the others. Critical or overaggressive attitudes among the group members hinder the effectiveness of the work, regardless of the individual abilities represented.

The principal of a school has an advantage in this respect. The personalities in the faculty are well known to him through experience. He can rather accurately anticipate working relationships at the time a group is set up to work on a problem.

THE GROUP UNDERTAKING

The advancement of any school system today is dependent upon a multitude of group undertakings in the field of instruction and curriculum. With some overlapping with the previous section, for the sake of emphasis, the following points represent a few simple rules for the principal or supervisor who organizes a committee or a faculty for a definite undertaking.

1. Provide sufficient time for the work, but hold the undertaking within time limits that will assure sufficient drive on the part of the participants. In other words, avoid two extremes. One of these is the drain upon teacher time and energy that comes when a supervisor or principal has his mind so much on a finished product that he drives the group to complete the job. The other is the boredom and frustration that come with an undertaking that seems to have no specific goal or deadline.

2. Determine as early as possible the exact scope of the undertaking. If it is in the area of instruction, delineate the specific phase of the program that is to be treated. This avoids losing the group in the ramifications of education.

3. Secure the proper atmosphere for good work, to enable all group members to give their best and to secure their share of satisfactions.

4. Provide an accounting of progress from time to time, so that the work can be redirected as needed to assure efficiency of effort and promise of accomplishment.

5. Supply the amount of before-the-group leadership that is necessary to command confidence in the undertaking and in the leader-

THE RANGE OF SUPERVISION

Service for the individual teacher

Utilization of nonschool personnel and facilities

Probationary teachers given extra attention

Evaluation of the outcomes of instruction

Research interpreted for classroom application

Visitation of schools and classrooms regularly

In-service programs arranged for continuous growth

Selection of instructional materials

Institutes and workshops made meaningful

Organization of continuous curriculum study

Numerous other leadership services, including community contacts, the correlation of administrative functions, addressing meetings, arranging demonstrations, etc.

ship, but draw back from the limelight to the extent that each member may make his greatest contribution and develop to the fullest through the work.

6. Provide the materials and resources needed in the undertaking, rather than permitting loss of teacher time in fumbling around for these.

7. Help to establish proper understanding of relationships of the undertaking to other phases of the school program that may be out of direct observation or knowledge of the group.

8. Arrive at decisions in a democratic manner, after sufficient time and attention have been given to the various possibilities. The town meeting way of hammering out an agreement takes a lot of time, but it is worth it.

THE PURPOSE OF THE PLANNING

Teachers and supervisors have much more in common than merely a democratic way of working together, valuable as that is. They have in common the purpose of their work in which this method

THE SPIRIT OF SUPERVISION

Stimulation of instruction and learning, satisfaction in the work

Unity of supervisory effort

Participation and promotion by a maximum number

Encouragement rather than discouragement

Respect for personality, recognition of effort

Visits by supervisors that are welcomed by the teachers

Inspiration without uncertainty

Service rather than dictation, sharing rather than ordering, security rather than fear

Ideas drawn from the entire group

Organization that respects democratic principles

New things tried without tearing down the good in the old

can be put to use. Just as does teaching, supervision follows one purpose, that of promoting the development of the learner. Group co-operation tends to eliminate uniformity of school procedure, often referred to as the lock-step. As uniformity is eliminated, unity must not be lost in the process. One of the outstanding attempts to emphasize the importance of the group process is that of Kimball Wiles. In his book, *Supervision for Better Schools*, he interprets the relationships of working groups in the simplicity of language that appeals to the average school administrator.⁵

Two major features. Perhaps this present movement of supervision can be best understood by looking at two major features: (1) the range of services represented, and (2) the spirit that permeates the entire effort. These two have been streamlined in the two summaries in the accompanying boxes. In the range is seen the breadth of the concept, in the spirit the human touch that is so essential.

The present expansion of school supervision is indeed democratic. It has found the co-operative way of getting a job done. The ex-

⁵Kimball Wiles, *Supervision for Better Schools* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950), pp. 15-16.

tension of the idea to all school situations will come in time. The group process is invaluable. The individual participant can identify himself fully with the undertaking in question. In turn, he can give the best of himself to it. Democratic supervision is not telling teachers exactly what to do. Likewise, it does not mean telling them to try anything they please, and affording them no leadership in the enterprise. It means getting into more work. Democratic supervision calls for more time and effort on the part of the supervisor, just as co-operative classroom management calls for more of the same on the part of the teacher. Behind every supervisory program, behind every position of designated instructional leadership, should be the eternal longing for something better for children. Teaching continues to go up in the dollars-and-cents column. It must continue to go up in the instructional column. That is the destiny of those who bear the supervisory responsibility.

For Further Consideration

Are there instances in which "leadership as a person" has advantages over "leadership as a function"? Should the words power and control be avoided in describing the position of school administration? Should they be avoided in describing the position of the teacher in a classroom? Are there cases in which teachers, administrators, or staff members have confused control with responsibility? What is to be done by administration if teachers do not wish to share the leadership in curriculum study? In maintaining the human relationships that he wishes in his instructional leadership, are there difficulties faced by the principal because of his administrative responsibilities?

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7

Organizing for Supervision

THE current period has presented American education with an inviting concept of supervision. It is functional enough to serve the child and democratic enough to serve the teacher. However, its application to school practice faces the danger of a diffusion of effort, because of the breadth of the program. To avoid this, school administration needs to channel the full force of its supervisory leadership into a single co-ordinated effort that assures unity of purpose and prevents the waste of a multitude of unrelated gestures. School systems have found that to organize the program of staff leadership is more essential than ever before. School administration can be businesslike and at the same time be democratic.

In this and the next chapter are presented factors to be considered in organizing the program of supervision in a school system. Perhaps the major distinction between Chapters 7 and 8 is that this one deals more with the spirit of organizing and the next more with the actual program. In any case, the two are to be considered together, and the content inseparable.

PROGRAM EFFICIENCY

The program needs to be an efficient program. After a couple of centuries of experience, our American republic has developed a stockpile of hard-gained knowledge about the management of human resources. Government, business, industry, and education have been the chief contributors to that stock pile. Personnel techniques and even some personnel gadgets are to be found in this knowledge about how human resources can best be put to use for worthy ends.

In the school business, behind which is a great public investment and before which is the hope of America, classrooms have to be

put to use to achieve educational goals. It is administration's problem to achieve a maximum output. To do otherwise than to achieve this return is to deny the basic principles of American life by denying children and youth what is rightfully theirs under our system of life. This vigilance of administration is vested in a system of supervision.

In organizing for supervision, in recent years we have questioned the application of America's efficiency-of-operation principle to school management for fear it is incompatible with our concern for proper human relations. To run from the efficiency principle, lest the teacher feel the pressure of supervisory eagerness of accomplishment, would be to escape into the arms of a still greater threat to democratic school management—the failure to deliver to the child that educational bounty which is constitutionally his.

When kept in line with reasonable expectations of accomplishment, the principle of efficiency has its place in school affairs. It needs to be used with full appreciation of the difference between turning out uniform machine products and turning out well-developed children, no two of whom have taken the same degree of polish.

Teachers, administrators, and supervisors have to submit to a certain degree of order in the management of human resources if the true goals of American education are to be achieved. As was discussed earlier, there's nothing un-American about it; only a false application of the principle would be so. Efficiency of operation, when present in school affairs, is not the doings of administration. However, if it is not present, it is administration's undoing. As a principle it is a basic feature of the mandate of public education that the citizenry passes on to the professional workers. The investor expects efficiency in his school system just as in his Community Chest organization, his local transit system, and his system of public libraries.

School administrators, teachers, and staff officers are always reminded that there is a job to be done, and that their positions are justified for that purpose alone. This entire effort needs to be co-ordinated and directed toward the common goal. This co-ordination and direction calls for an organized program of supervision.

CLARITY OF FUNCTION

Michigan's code of operation. That good human relations in a school system depend on clarity of function has been recognized

by the Michigan State Department of Public Instruction. A bulletin has been issued to guide the local school districts in organizing and relating the work of the teachers and the staff members with special services. In making a case for a written school code that includes a comprehensive statement on personnel policies, this suggestion is presented in the bulletin:

While it is recognized that personality factors, esprit de corps, and professionalism in the main determine the effectiveness of the school system, organization is still necessary. A great deal of difficulty arises because people do not realize that a school system is made up of many agents and that while they have somewhat similar functions, their functions are also different to a large extent. A clear statement of relationships may help. There is no thought that the presence of persons with special functions should reduce the amount of cooperative work that would go in the school system.¹

How much supervision? Following this line of reasoning, it would seem that the first principle of organization for supervision is to provide adequate personnel, and the second is to avoid overlapping or duplication of effort so that there is no waste in this provision. No school system, state or local, can afford to provide more administrative and supervisory positions than are actually necessary to a good educational program. Salary accounts can be only so large, and wasted effort at the supervisory level may be robbing the school system at the teaching level. Large supervisory staffs, curriculum departments, and similar forces of instructional leaders can hardly be justified if in turn they force administration in financing them to crowd classes, cut down classroom materials, or otherwise hamper teaching efficiency.

The limitations in the provision for schools make it all the more necessary for administration to get the most from what it has. There have always been limitations, in the training of the teachers, in the size of the staff, in the materials of instruction. Careful organization, with a minimum of overlapping of staff effort, can do much to overcome shortages.

To carry out this function, supervision does not need to be organized as a police action. It is not the enforcement of infallible

¹ Michigan State Department of Public Instruction, *Personnel Policy Development* (Lansing: the Department, 1948), p. 3.

laws of learning or techniques of teaching. It achieves efficiency only to the degree that it helps teachers. An effective program of leadership grows from the needs of teachers who are tussling with the many aspects of the development of the pupils. This is its foundation. Instruction is dependent upon supervision, and supervision upon organization.

Specialists are provided. Today, emphasis upon organizational aspects of school administration brings forth certain protests. Any who may be inclined to shy away from the printed statement of the application of the principle of efficiency to school operation may dispel such fears by recognizing the principle in actual practice. The specialist has long since been accepted in the school picture. Into American life the specialist has always followed the acceptance of the principle of efficiency. The practice was bound to come to school management just as to the fields of medicine, business, agriculture, and industry.

The improvement of learning was originally the responsibility of the superintendent. As educational science advanced on a number of fronts, the chief school officer could not expect to give leadership in these various fields. Standing as evidence that American education has continued to endorse the efficiency principle in instructional management are the various staff positions added in recent years to the original supervisory offices. Among these are those in research and measurement, curriculum development and in-service, and guidance and personnel. Standing as evidence that the application of the principle is sound is the recorded account of the effectiveness of such special supervisory functions. Children are getting a better education in today's schools than ever before. And in the process there is greater recognition of the principles of American democracy than ever before.

American public school administration reached a high state of efficiency a few years back. And no doubt in rushing toward that goal it at times short-cut the democratic road. Once the goal was achieved, time was taken to assay shortages in democratic procedures. A decade ago Miller well expressed the development of this condition in this short statement:

The principles of authority, responsibility, and efficiency are stressed by eminent writers in the field of educational administration, and by

groups made up largely of persons with an administrative point of view. The principles of democracy, adaptability, and evaluation are stressed by teachers, social scientists, psychologists, and educational philosophers. This is not to suggest that careful thinkers in these fields fail to recognize the need for the application of all six principles to cooperative administration. Rather, the emphasis given each indicates how important it is that all be considered in the development of effective procedures. Otherwise a partial and incomplete course of action will result.²

The writer's thesis is that school administration need not sacrifice its organizational accomplishments of a few years back as it provides for full-scale democratic participation of teachers and staff.

CLEARING THE CONCEPTION OF THE SUPERVISORY JOB

An effective organization for supervision is dependent upon a clear conception of the job to be done. As noted in Chapter 5, recently the investment in staff positions has been shifting from the improvement of instruction to the improvement of learning. The situation was somewhat over simplified in that discussion with the summarizing statement that supervision had thus shifted its attention from instruction to learning. Perhaps it would be better to say that thus far this transition in concept has represented a sentiment rather than a true definition of supervision today. The inherent question is—to what extent are these newer staff services to be considered as elements of the program of supervision? The situation in question might be pictured by two simple diagrams.

1. *Supervision as service to instruction.*



In this simplified idea of supervision of some years back, supervision was represented by service people who went to the teachers to help them with the instructional problems they faced. A supervisor's influence upon the learning situation was exerted through this contact with the teacher.

2. *Supervision as service to learning.*

² Ward I. Miller, *Democracy in Educational Administration* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942), pp. 57-58.



In this broader idea of supervision today, the staff service provided is centered upon improving learning. Consequently, the staff member's influence upon the learning situation may not always be exerted through contact with the teacher. For instance, the curriculum office in many school systems exerts its energies upon classroom learning without making direct contact with many of the teachers of those classrooms. The same is true of other staff offices such as those handling testing services and those providing audio-visual aids.

The trend toward in-service activities as stimulants to learning is one that brings teachers out of their classrooms to secure group help at in-service centers. Here the staff member retains contact with the teacher but sacrifices direct contact with the classrooms.

Apparently school administration can no longer expect to use the term supervisor for every staff position that represents potential instructional leadership. By the same token, that which is to be called the supervisory program of the school cannot be limited to that portion of the staff service that is rendered by those who bear the title of supervisor.

Major objectives. A good supervisory program works for the welfare of the pupil, the effort being expended by

1. Helping teachers as individuals and as groups with their instructional problems.
2. Co-ordinating the total instructional effort into a well-balanced program.
3. Providing proper conditions for the continuous in-service growth of teachers, supervisors, and administrators.
4. Developing proper and adequate instructional materials.

In these functions can be found the provision for such staff services as these: help for the teachers both in and out of their classrooms, in-service activities for groups of teachers and administrators, the development of curriculum materials, and the evaluation of the instructional program in part and as a whole. Instructional pro-

grams are bound to be affected by community conditions, teacher supply, building facilities, public attitudes, and scores of other features of the school setting. And in turn, instructional leadership will come face to face with such factors which condition the effectiveness of schooling. However, the more intensive effort of supervision must be somewhat more limited than its broader interest, if its identity—by which is meant its distinction from administration—is to be retained.

Harman found what he considered to be three distinguishable concepts of supervision: (1) a co-operative educational service, concerned with identifying and solving problems related to teaching and learning; (2) the in-service training of teachers; and (3) a scientific enterprise concerned with evaluating and improving the instructional program of the school.³

Is such a distinction desirable or practical? A trend among theoretical pronouncements to erase the boundary line is noticeable. In this movement, it is pointed out that the ever-increasing participation of teachers in administrative matters and the wide distribution of administrative responsibility diffuses authority and tends to submerge administrative function in supervisory processes.

However, the effectiveness of effort when large numbers of people are working in a common undertaking is dependent upon organization. The democratic process itself is protected only if there are organizational controls and distinctions provided. In public school operation, administration will continue to assume the greater proportion of the responsibility for setting up the school and protecting it against obstructionists. Supervision will continue to assume the greater proportion of the responsibility for helping the teachers with their program of instruction within this setting. Oversimplified as it is, such a distinction protects instructional leadership from taking on a task all out of proportion to its capacity. To remove all the distinctive partitions in the organization of a large school system would be about the same as removing all the walls in a large school plant. Although supervision is a phase of administration that cannot be separated from it, there is still reason for retaining the identity of the two.

³ Allen Harman, "Principals' and Teachers' Concepts of Supervision," *The American School Board Journal*, 117:3 (September, 1948), p. 33.

THE PROVISION OF SUPERVISORY POSITIONS

The supervisory program calls for adequate leadership. How much special personnel is needed in a school system to assure effective instruction and maximum learning? No formulas can be devised to give a ready answer to this question. The provision of supervisory assistance is generally accepted as a joint responsibility of state, county, and local school systems. Chapters that follow treat the co-operative services provided on the state and the county levels.

The theory of the supervision of instruction at the local level begins with the responsibility of the superintendent and principal in the small systems, and fans out into various specialized positions in the larger. In a recent survey of public schools, the writer attempted to secure a cross section of this special supervisory service that supplements the efforts of the two basic administrative officers. In reporting a portion of that survey here, the population of the cities is given to enable the reader to make comparisons with his local school situation. Staff positions not directly pertaining to instruction, such as those representing cafeterias and nursing, have not been included.

Springfield, Vermont—9,190

The schools employ one elementary supervisor. This position includes responsibility for the instructional program for grades one through six. She is a general supervisor who supervises classes, provides in-service training, directs curriculum revision, and sets up committees for the selection of books and materials.

Special teachers in health, physical education, art, and music. These teachers present new work in their field in each classroom approximately once a week. They help teachers plan the integration of the special subjects with the regular units of work. The general supervisor acts as co-ordinator of this staff to help articulate their special services into the general instructional program.

Sunnyside, Washington—17,000

A group of former classroom teachers who have specialized in particular fields serve as "teacher helpers." They go to classrooms only upon invitation to give assistance as desired by the teacher. There are teacher helpers in art, music, physical education, speech,

Little Rock, Arkansas—101,387

Instructional leadership is headed by three people bearing supervisory as well as administrative responsibility: the assistant superintendents in charge of secondary education, elementary education, and vocational and adult education. Assisting are five instructional supervisors in the following fields: teaching aids, health and physical education, home-making, special education, and vocal music.

Austin, Texas—131,964

The special staff for instructional leadership includes: director of instruction, director of personnel and research, and director of personnel and special services. The positions are co-ordinated by an assistant superintendent.

Fort Wayne, Indiana—132,840

These eleven positions give the supervisory assistance to building principals: director of elementary education; director of physical education, health, and safety; director of visual education and supervisor of social studies; director of research and measurement; supervisor of physical education; elementary supervisor; supervisor of music; supervisor of speech and hearing; director of instrumental music; supervisor of penmanship and mathematics; and director of art.

Omaha, Nebraska—247,408

There are five general supervisory officers dealing with general instruction on the elementary level, and nine supervisors in special areas. In addition are a director of curriculum, a director of special education, and an assistant superintendent who co-ordinates this instructional leadership.

Wood County, West Virginia

West Virginia made the change to the county unit organization as an economy measure during the depression. It took effect in July, 1933, along with a constitutional amendment which limited stringently the amount of tax levy available to boards of education. A clause was put in the school law prohibiting the employment of supervisors.

Several of the state's cities had operated independent school districts previous to this time, and had employed supervisory personnel. In many cases, this personnel was employed under the county unit system as special teachers. This was true in Wood County, former supervisors in the Parkersburg City School System being carried over as special teachers in art, music, penmanship, and physical education. At this time, general supervision became the function of the superintendent, his assistant superintendents, and the principals. Although the law prohibiting the employment of supervisors has since been changed, the replacement of the positions to school budgets has been slow in the state.

In Wood County, one assistant superintendent has charge of elementary curriculum and supervises instruction in 15 city elementary schools, having a pupil enrollment of 5,074 and a staff of 167 teachers and principals. Another has charge of 39 schools, mostly rural, with 3,058 pupils and 101 teachers. A supervisor of secondary schools has charge of five junior high schools and three senior high schools, with 4,282 pupils and 155 teachers. These three positions are supplemented by a supervisor of art, one of vocal music, two of instrumental music, and one of physical education. The remainder of the supervisory responsibility is carried by the principals.

The supervisory approach includes classroom service, curriculum development, and in-service training. Much of the activity is carried out by means of faculty meetings, group meetings, and summer workshops. The supervisors share with the administrators the judgment of the teachers' work. Information about the procedures of outstandingly good teachers is commonly gathered and passed on to others. Course of study outlines, which are flexible and revised annually, are supplied to elementary and junior high school teachers. The development and revision of such materials is a typical summer workshop endeavor. The school system sees co-operative effort as the outstanding feature of its supervisory program.⁴

Provision of positions constantly changing. It should be noted that there is noticeable a continuous change in the provision of personnel for instructional leadership. For this reason it is best to consider the staff picture just reviewed as representative of staff distribution at a given time. The variability in positions in a super-

⁴ Information supplied by E. S. Shannon, superintendent of the Wood County schools.

visory staff from time to time reflects changing emphasis in program as well as the ups and downs of school support.

ASSURING DEMOCRATIC PROCEDURES

The effectiveness of the supervisory program is dependent upon full incorporation of the democratic procedure. As reviewed in Chapter 6, the keynote of the present period in American public education is democracy. From the definition of the leadership in the superintendent's office on over to the relationship of child and teacher, at every turn this concern for democratic behavior is expressed—and accepted. Practice is rapidly catching up with expression and acceptance. So rich is the literature on this subject, little is to be added. In seeking to apply them to school operation, writers have fully explored the principles of democracy, tracing them back to the Bill of Rights, the Declaration of Independence, and the utterances of national leaders. Rather than try to add to this field here, we will summarize it.

Basic democratic concepts. In bringing principle to bear upon practice, naturally there are bound to be differences in interpretations. There are differences in ability to implement an idea, regardless of uniformity in its acceptance. In many school systems missions seeking democratic administration were bound to get lost in the blind alley of paternalism before they found their way. In others it was natural to bestow authority among the many before there was a willingness to assume the responsibilities that it entailed. In others, in the eagerness to free initiative and originality there was a neglect of common purpose for the educational program. Underlying all this movement, there have been pointed out these five basic concepts of the principle of democracy:

1. A respect for the uniqueness and dignity of individual human personality.
2. Faith in the power of human intelligence to solve the problems of mankind.
3. The right of each individual to share in the determination of purposes and policies which affect him and his group.
4. The right of the sovereign people to act directly or through chosen representatives.
5. The right to equality but not identity of opportunity for all.⁵

⁵ Miller, *op. cit.*, p. 40.

Any effective supervisory program is bound to respect these basic concepts. The ideas and the co-operative planning of the mass of teachers in a school system are now brought to bear in the typical phases of instructional advancement: curriculum development, in-service training, and evaluation of school progress. Teachers are in on the planning of policies as well as program. Where numbers are large, chosen representatives are the practice. In the more direct supervision of instruction in the classroom, there is respect for personality.

Democratic leadership. In providing for democratic supervision, it is common first to check the administrator's office to see that the example is there for the organization at large. He cannot secure democratic action by instructing his staff, "Do as I say, not as I do." Here we include the point-by-point appraisal of the autocratic and the democratic administrator that has been presented by Koopman, Miel, and Misner, a description that presents the two opposites.⁶ The two lists were originally set up as opposites. That is, the first item in the one is to be compared with the first item of the other, and so on through all twelve points.

The Autocratic Administrator

1. Thinks he can sit by himself and see all angles of a problem.
2. Does not know how to use the experience of others.
3. Cannot bear to let any of the strings of management slip from his fingers.
4. Is so tied to routine details that he seldom tackles the larger job.
5. Is jealous of ideas. Reacts in one of several ways when someone else makes a proposal:
 - a. Assumes that a suggestion implies criticism and is offended.
 - b. Kills a suggestion which does not at once strike him as excellent, with a withering or sarcastic remark.
 - c. While seeming to reject it, neatly captures the idea and restates it as his own, giving no credit to the originator of the idea.
6. Makes decisions that should have been made by the group.
7. Adopts a paternalistic attitude toward the group: "I know best."
8. Expects hero-worship, giggles of delight at his attempts at humor, and so forth.
9. Does not admit even to himself that he is autocratic.
10. Sacrifices everything—teachers, students, progress—to the end of a smooth-running system.

⁶ G. R. Koopman, A. Miel, and P. J. Misner, *Democracy in School Administration* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1943), pp. 15-16. (Used by permission of Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc.)

11. Is greedy for publicity.
12. Gives to others as few opportunities for leadership as possible. Makes committee assignments, then outlines all duties and performs many of them himself.

The Democratic Administrator

1. Realizes the potential power in thirty or fifty brains.
2. Knows how to utilize that power.
3. Knows how to delegate duties.
4. Frees himself from routine details in order to turn his energy to creative leadership.
5. Is quick to recognize and praise an idea that comes from someone else.
6. Refers to the group all matters that concern the group.
7. Maintains the position of friendly, helpful adviser on both personal and professional matters.
8. Wishes to be respected as a fair and just individual as he respects others.
9. Consciously practices democratic techniques.
10. Is more concerned with the growth of individuals involved than with freedom from annoyances.
11. Pushes others into the foreground so that they may taste success.
12. Believes that as many individuals as possible should have opportunities to take responsibility and exercise leadership.

Any school community has the right to the potential power that resides within the teachers and other staff members of the school system. This power is released only through a policy of maximum co-operation such as that outlined in the democratic-administrator column above. The community that endures the autocratic administration described above accepts limited returns on its school tax dollar.

EFFICIENT YET DEMOCRATIC SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

There is ample evidence to show that school operation has moved well beyond the talk-democracy stage where it was struggling with its efficiency conscience some years back. There is apparent a general faith in the teachers' ability to solve their instructional problems and their right to have the co-operative help of supervisory personnel in the process. The organization for this job is reflecting the basic principles of democratic action, such as the five listed above.

This type of school action has not come by chance. It has come through a concerted effort to achieve it. This emergence of demo-

cratic or co-operative procedure without the loss of efficiency is well expressed in a bulletin from the Lakewood, Ohio, public schools, *Handbook of Professional Personnel Policies*. This straightforward statement is not lost in the idealism of our goal.⁷ It shows deep respect for the worth of the individual worker, teacher or supervisor, and at the same time respects the necessity of establishing responsibilities for the sake of the ultimate goal—the child's education. The statement reads:

Good personal, professional, and human relations depend upon a clear understanding of relative functions in an administrative organization. While it is true that the effectiveness of a school system often depends on such factors, administrative organization is always necessary. Many difficulties will not arise among personnel having somewhat similar functions, if there is a clear understanding of working relationships. The presence of persons with special functions should lead to increased efficiency in the successful operation of a school program.

The chart on the following page should not be interpreted strictly as line and staff organization (Table 3). It is rather a figurative representation of functional working relationships. This relationship is particularly true for the group of directors, supervisors, and other specialists who are intermediary between the general administration and principals and teachers. This group is not generally charged with line or authoritative function, but rather that of providing leadership in a reciprocal working arrangement with other personnel in the coordination, planning, facilitation, evaluation, and improvement of the school program.

The principal should be recognized as an instructional leader and staff officer of the superintendent. He is the administrator to whom all teachers in his building are directly responsible. Although others are concerned with instruction, it is the teacher who is primarily responsible for that function. Both cooperative and individualistic roles of teachers must be given due consideration.

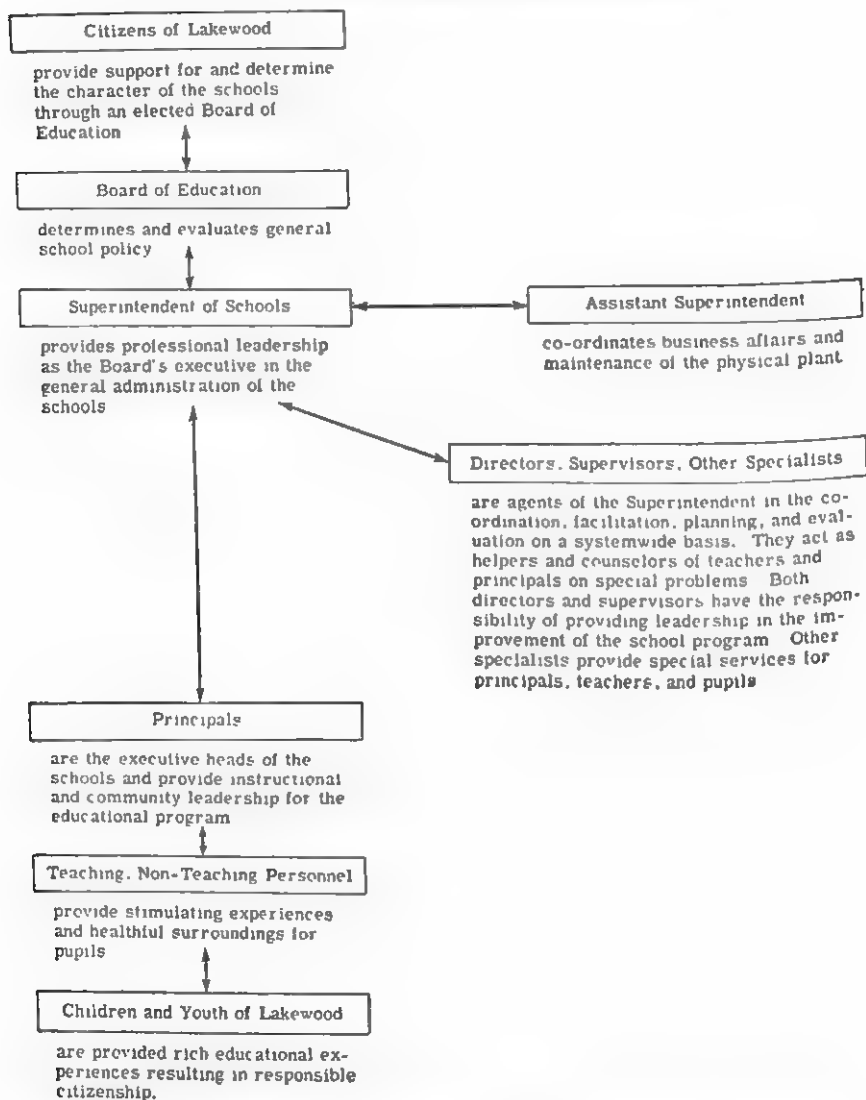
County leadership. The Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association has been a leader in bringing co-operative procedures to county school operation. In one of their reports to the field,⁸ in dealing with county school administration, they summarize democratic leadership with these eight points:

⁷ Lakewood, Ohio, Public Schools, *Handbook of Professional Personnel Policies*, 1951, pp. 1-2.

⁸ Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, *The County Superintendent of Schools in the United States*, Yearbook (Washington D. C.: the Association, 1950), pp. 99-100.

TABLE 3

PERSONNEL RELATIONSHIPS, LAKEWOOD, OHIO



1. *Service* denotes an open-mindedness on the part of the superintendent and others involved in leadership roles. It connotes willingness to plan for the welfare of all persons in the light of their needs, understandings, and expressed feelings.

2. *Participation* emerges through voluntary action of the individual to join in planning and in making decisions.

3. *Unity* of purposes, goals, and action in democratic functioning contains the idea of diversity, recognizing that individual needs vary and that there are differing degrees and ways of approaching goals.

4. *Sharing* implies a high degree of interaction and communication. It involves a constant interchange of ideas, experiences, and the definition of new goals and purposes.

5. *Satisfaction* is derived from sharing. It is that inner warmth which comes from being a part of a team, from the feeling that by working together an enterprise is achieved.

6. *Security* derived from good democratic group relationships is attained only when the individual feels worthy in the group situation and equal to his share of the task. Security is intimately involved in the idea of initiative and creativity, so necessary for coping with the changing situations in which democratic action operates.

7. *Recognition*—the reward of service—is obtained from the thoughtful expression of appreciation for a contribution made or formal acknowledgment of the share assumed in a group endeavor. Recognition by fellow workers of honest labor in behalf of the group gives the urge and momentum to carry on.

8. *Change* itself is inherent in the democratic concept of society and education. The very essence of democracy is that its processes have that dynamic quality which permits the solution of problems in an ever-changing social situation. It is evolutionary change so it is often not rapid nor are results always immediately discernible. But, over the longer time span such change is much more effective and lasting.

Democratic leadership operates by means of the decentralization of leadership. Any decentralization of responsibility for either policy or practice must be matched by an equal acceptance of such responsibility by the recipients. When responsibility is assigned, an equal portion of authority and accountability must also accompany it.

Those who seek the rich harvest of democracy at the end of the supervisory rainbow must be able to distinguish purpose from practice. For a school system to sow the one does not necessarily mean that it will reap the other. There is much labor between the sowing and the reaping.

The group process. Much has been written and said about the group process, about co-operative planning and achieving. By the things that are done and the spirit with which the participants go about doing them can the eventual effectiveness of the democratic intentions be judged. The organization for co-operative instructional leadership should provide these—and other—practices:

1. A maximum of ideas and proposals come from the teachers to feed the supervisory machine.

2. The initiative and talent of individual teachers are brought out for the benefit of the whole.

3. Teachers and staff commonly work in groups on matters accepted as worthy of their time and effort.

4. Teachers willingly accept the responsibilities inherent in participation in administrative planning.

5. Discussions are friendly and frank.

6. There is apparent mutual respect for the ideas of all, with a willingness to harmonize differences in the scientific light of fact. Decisions represent the pooling of facts as well as the pooling of opinions.

7. Authority for action is accepted as a feature of co-operative effort rather than as a responsibility of only the group member with a supervisory rating.

8. There is apparent a unity of purpose and a faith in accomplishment that promises reward for the child.

These statements can be little more than general, and remain so until translated into practice by instructional leaders. The theorist can limit his pleasures to ideas, but the satisfaction of the on-the-job supervisor grows with experience with practical situations as well as with ideas. It is not so much how people might work together, as how they are working together now, that challenges the supervisor to make his best contribution.

A graduate class, working with William M. Alexander at the University of Miami, decided upon these as the characteristics which a supervisor should show in handling groups:⁹

Democratic Group Leadership:

Recognizes contributions of all group members

Works with rather than over the group

Encourages individual participation

Leads groups to decisions

Puts group decisions into effect

Creates informal, friendly relations within the group and towards self

Distributes responsibility equitably among group members

Stimulates the introduction of new ideas

⁹ Florida State Department of Education, *Supervisory News Notes*, 7:1 (August 27, 1951), p. 3. (Quoted by permission of William M. Alexander.)

Resolves conflicts with minimum friction
Keeps group working on material relevant to point
Maintains maximum interest throughout discussion

THE TEACHER'S RELATIONSHIPS

Job analysis. To set out, at least in general terms, the official capacities of the personnel in a large school system's supervisory and administrative staff is a natural thing to do. Nor is it anything new. Such codes are commonly found in school systems large enough to provide a number of interlocking services for teachers. Official responsibilities and the limitations of action were set out in the American Constitution. They were found in the Magna Charta, the law of Moses, and the laws of the Medes and the Persians. Invariably, the question, of what does the job consist, arises with the candidate being interviewed for any staff post, such as instructional co-ordinator, art director, elementary school supervisor, or director of audio-visual aids.

The job description is valuable in any school system. Such descriptions invariably bring out staff relationships. Such attempts at classifying personnel need not deprive a position of initiative and ingenuity. Only by relating and controlling supervisory services can the teacher on the one hand receive his share of help, and on the other be protected against an overzealous program. An ever-increasing complexity in school management has been brought on by the growth of school systems and the specialization of staff services. This development has multiplied the number of people who work between the superintendent's office and the teacher's classroom. Without the control and co-ordination of the total staff effort, it may bring pressure rather than promise to the teacher. For instance, such dangers as the following can be avoided only through co-ordinated effort.

1. Committee work, launched under the guise of democracy, may become highly oppressive if not limited to a reasonable amount for any one teacher.

2. A new staff officer, in attempting to develop the position, may create an unsettled state of affairs for the teacher he brings into his sphere of activity. New staff personnel may represent a change in theory and recommended procedure, which may be disconcerting to teachers.

3. A new staff service, such as the supervision of guidance, may be launched without proper understanding on the teacher's part.

4. Demonstrations and committee meetings, set during the school day in an attempt to protect the teacher's out-of-school time, may in turn hinder her classroom program. Or they may throw a burden upon others in the school who have to take over the teacher's classes during her meetings.

5. Teachers may be called in to participate in curriculum reorganization with which they are not actually in sympathy.

6. A supervisory force in a given field may suddenly withdraw direct classroom help to the teacher, and become solely an office staff to be approached there for help.

7. There may be a failure to increase the supervisory staff in relationship to the growth in the number of schools and classrooms.

8. There may be the danger of certain in-service activities, such as course building, becoming ends in themselves. Their function is the actual improvement of instruction. Any special department, operating independently, faces the danger of becoming a vested interest.

9. The various divisions of the program may experience sclerosis. Over-all direction can assure the flexibility necessary to functional operation.

10. The injudicious program of one staff department may hinder the possible good of another supervisory division. For instance, over-emphasis upon a standardized testing program by the research department may be at cross purposes with the aims of the curriculum division.

11. Changes in curriculum or other supervisory activities may be advanced at the expense of the mental or physical health of the teacher.

Such dangers or setbacks as those just described need not be experienced in a good supervisory program. Proper control and direction are essential. Unless these are provided, a large and varied supervisory staff carries a threat to classroom instruction as well as a promise. One of the most undemocratic plagues that may strike a school system is the wholesale creation of committees and study groups and the indiscriminate appointment of teachers to such work programs.

THE ORGANIZATION OF SUPERVISION IN TEXAS

Texas is a state with a liberal provision of supervisors financed at that level. It has likewise given a good deal of consideration to its organization for supervision. With more than 400 instructional supervisors provided at state expense, going in and out of the classrooms, it was accepted as urgent to outline the framework of relationships and responsibilities. The state office in Austin has pointed out that the chief function of this service is to improve the learning situations for children, and that supervision is a service activity that exists only to help teachers do their jobs better.

The organizational pattern in Texas outlines the responsibilities of these five: (1) the teacher, (2) the supervisor, (3) the administrator—principal and superintendent, (4) the community, and (5) the state agency. The description that follows¹⁰ was issued at the state level. It is to be noted that the situation anticipated is one in which a county supervisor is calling upon a number of different schools, spending much of her time in the classrooms.

RESPONSIBILITY OF—

<p>THE TEACHER</p>	<p>—must be willing to recognize the supervisor as a co-worker who also has a responsibility for the educational program of the school. She must be willing to accept the supervisor as a friend and a person who either has the "know-how" or who will help her find someone or some way to secure help needed for the improvement of learning within the classroom; that is, recognize the supervisor as a resource person on whom she can depend. She must provide the opportunity for the supervisor to visit her classroom to observe the activities in progress, discuss these activities with the supervisor—give the supervisor the feeling of "belonging" and of being welcomed as a co-worker. In recognizing her role in a program of supervision—</p>
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The good teacher will—

- • • assume her rightful role in the supervisory program.
- • • prove a belief in supervision by working with the supervisor in types of school improvement which she deems important.
- • • be willing to experiment with new teaching techniques, and curriculum improvement programs. And thus through the cooperative teamwork of classroom teacher and supervisor these new programs will be given a trial and their worth measured. One can't say,

¹⁰ Curriculum Division, Texas Education Agency, *Supervisor's Exchange* (Austin: the Agency, March, 1951), pp. 1-5.

"It won't work," until it has been tried. The classroom is the laboratory—the teacher its keeper. The supervisor can try out new techniques only through her laboratory and by her cooperation.

... join with the supervisor in professional growth through cooperative participation in staff workshops, meetings, and visitation programs promoted through the supervisor's professional leadership.

... be a plus-teacher—willing to share with others her knowledge and talents beyond the four walls of her particular classroom.

<p>THE SUPERVISOR</p>

—needs to recognize the administrative staff as persons charged with the organization and administration of the school program. The supervisor's number-one responsibility is to secure an understanding of their philosophy and that upon which the school program is built. Study this philosophy and strive to fit supervision within this established program.

The supervisor should—

... accept the situation as she finds it and not immediately start a crusade to change things—avoid entering into the picture with a flourish.

... work through the administrative staff to the teachers and the classroom.

... be another member of the staff.

The good supervisor will—

... keep informed on routine matters related to the school such as reports, record keeping, school calendars, local and state regulations. (Not that all these are the responsibility of the supervisor but one must keep informed on such matters as they affect the total school program.)

... know textbooks and teaching aids with which teachers work.

... know when good teaching is taking place and help teachers to be willing to share with others.

... encourage and help teachers to work in groups on common problems.

... remember that supervision is not just to help weak teachers but is a means of sharing and exchanging between all teachers.

... remember that teachers have a right to expect much of the supervisor professionally.

... be willing to say, "I don't know" to a question, but not willing to let it rest there.

... help the community to know more about school practices by use of school bulletins, the public press, and through service clubs. Publicize good classroom teaching and techniques.

THE
ADMINISTRATIVE
STAFF

—must recognize that good administration is making it possible for good learning situations to function. In recognizing this administrative responsibility, then realize that classroom teachers must be given every opportunity to develop to their fullest ability. A well-qualified supervisor can be the teacher's best ally to realize this goal. The administrator will have some clear convictions as to needs for improving classroom learning, then provide supervisory assistant to help meet these needs.

The good administrator will—

- ... spend some time with the supervisor to aid her in becoming oriented as a member of the staff.
- ... give some time to staff conferences with the supervisor that she may have the benefit of his knowledge and counsel.
- ... see that the supervisor is provided with office space where she may confer and work with teachers—has access to a typewriter, mimeograph, supplies, and professional materials.
- ... make available all publications and bulletins from state and national education offices for her information.
- ... keep her informed on all local, district, state, and national educational meetings of importance, and encourage attendance to these meetings which affect the school program.
- ... make it possible for her to attend at least one national meeting each year.
- ... avoid making her the means of spying on classroom teachers.

THE
COMMUNITY

—should want the very best professional services available for enriching the experiences offered children through the public school. If supervision is recognized as a part of this professional service then—

The community should—

- ... give cooperation and help to make supervision function as a part of better services for better schools.
- ... become acquainted with the supervisor just as another member of the school staff—a teacher of children.
- ... accept the supervisor as one of the links between the school and the community—as one who is to view the school program as it fits the community's service for better living.

THE
STATE AGENCY

—in its responsibility to the profession—

- ... takes the lead in setting up desirable standards in a program of preparation for supervisors.

- . . . assumes leadership for working out certification regulations based upon an approved program of preparation.
- . . . provides consultative services from the curriculum division, and makes it possible for this service to reach every part of the state where such services are needed and desired.
- . . . works with local, regional, and state workshops to develop pre-service and in-service growth of supervisors.
- . . . makes available to local supervisors research studies as to good school practices.
- . . . provides publications, bulletins, and other guides to aid supervisors in working with local school staffs on a developmental curriculum to meet local needs.

In answering the question—What does the Texas Education Agency expect of supervision?—the state office has pointed out that it expects the same thing that classroom teachers, administrators, and the community expect of it. It expects the ability and understanding in leadership that will help “teachers to give of their best that children may develop to the fullest extent of their ability.” Texas expects her county supervisors to be able to meet this challenge if they so accept the responsibility of the position.

THE PROMISE IN ORGANIZATION

Nobody can deny that in school organization there are dangers—dangers of placing the major attention upon the machinery of management rather than upon the learning situation itself. As already indicated, a smooth-running system can become such a fetish that the education of children at times is sacrificed for its sake.

But on the other hand, the instructional situation—comprised of teacher and child—can be protected only by means of proper school organization. It is not a simple matter for school supervisors to determine this middle point in instructional organization. Good supervision calls for planning, for the establishment of guide lines, and at times for operational limits. But whenever such planning reaches the point that it stifles instruction and learning, then it loses its good purposes.

In this chapter we have treated some of the steps to be taken in achieving the promise that supervisory organization holds. In the next chapter the supervisory program is considered.

For Further Consideration

How is a school system to determine if there is overefficiency in the administration or the supervision of the instructional program? Are there greater dangers faced by supervision than this? What means does a school system have of determining if there is wasted effort at the supervisory level? If the effectiveness of effort of a larger supervisory staff is dependent upon organization, what is to prevent such organization from stifling such necessities as initiative and democratic action? How can it be determined whether a school system has achieved a well-balanced supervisory program? If the specialization of supervisory function provides increased efficiency, what is to prevent such efficiency from defeating the good human relationships that we want in supervision? How can the superintendent decentralize supervisory leadership?

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8

The Supervisory Program

THE purpose of supervision is to facilitate learning by improving the conditions that affect it. This is not accomplished by the mere provision of personnel bearing titles denoting staff service to teachers. This is but the starting point. Any state or local school district may by code set up a given number of such positions, but their number is not the test or the assurance of supervision. Administration does not dispatch its obligation to the code by the appointment of this personnel.

Florida school law provides one supervisory position for each 100 teaching positions in the county, with a limit of seven supervisors in each county.¹ The city of Evansville, Indiana, maintains a staff of 16 central-office workers whose function in her public schools can be called supervisory. Montgomery County, Maryland, provides 29 positions that are supervisory or are devoted to the instructional program.

THE UNITY OF EFFORT

The service needs to be encompassed in a program that represents unity. Only then can purpose, planning, and organization be assured. *A properly conceived program represents effort directed toward a common goal.* Florida, Evansville, and Montgomery County appreciate this fact. They represent examples of its common acceptance by states, counties, cities, and single schools all over the land. A state such as Florida may press for a better state ratio, such as one supervisor for 50 teachers instead of one for 100. But without a well-

¹ Florida State Department of Public Instruction, *Supervision—a Report to the People*, 1950, p. 9.

co-ordinated program one supervisor for 20 teachers would be ineffective.

The Evansville plan. A glance at the staff of instructional leaders in Evansville, Indiana, a city of nearly 110,000 people, suggests the necessity for a planned program:

Trade and Industrial Co-ordinator
Director of Vocational and Adult Education
Supervisor of Safety and Elementary Physical Education
Director of Secondary Education
Supervisor of Business, Distributive Education, and Adult Education
Director of Art Education
Director of Elementary Education
Supervisor of Nurse-Teachers
Director of Industrial Arts Education and Supervisor of Science
Director of Audio-Visual Education and Bookstores
Director of Instrumental Music and Radio
Director of Attendance and Guidance
Supervisor of Special Education
Director of Health, Physical Education, and Special Education
Director of Athletics and Supervisor of Secondary Physical Education
Director of Music Education

Harnessing this supervisory force so that it can be directed toward the commonly accepted objective is an administrative necessity. Instructional advancement there revolves around these seven major features of the supervisory program:

1. The headquarters staff meets regularly every other week with the superintendent presiding. These meetings assure common knowledge of matters of general interest and importance to supervision, direction, and administration of the instructional program. At least once a year each staff member discusses problems, activities, and achievements in his or her field. Those attending educational conferences discuss high points of significance. This generates action as well as acting as an aid to evaluation of local effort. This headquarters meeting serves as a sounding board for instructional planning of any type. It assures balance in supervisory effort. It provides co-ordination. It is a clearing house as well as an incubator for instructional ideas.

2. The directors of elementary and secondary education act as chairmen of monthly meetings of the principals with the superintendent. These emphasize instructional improvement as well as the

more administrative matters. The chairmen tie them closely into the meetings of the headquarters staff. Supervisors frequently appear in connection with activities in their fields.

3. Every other Thursday afternoon the curriculum commission meets, largely on school time. It is a representative body of teachers, administrators, and supervisors. It is used as a two-way instrument, to solicit and direct grass-roots participation in instructional advancement. It keeps all levels and elements of the entire staff informed. It encourages interest and co-operation.

4. The first week of the school year is set up as a preparatory week of planning for the school year. Teachers are on pay, but classes do not meet until the next week. Two days are concentrated on the orientation of new teachers. The rest of the teaching staff met with the headquarters leaders, their local principals, and department heads in general planning sessions.

5. Principals conduct monthly professional building meetings emphasizing instructional matters. They share the responsibility for classroom supervision with the headquarters staff.

6. Supervisors and directors of special fields have regular and special meetings with various teacher groups.

7. A weekly bulletin is issued from the central office which acts as a further co-ordinating force.

This is not a collection of miscellaneous supervisory pot-shots at scattered instructional targets. It is a program. Such a program did not come about by chance. It has been a tradition since this type of operation was inaugurated almost two decades ago by a forward-looking superintendent, Ralph Irons. He was a top supervisor with vision. His own democratic way of working with the central office staff and the teachers set a pattern for the supervisory program.

Inheriting a scanty staff, within a few years he gradually built, position by position, an effective and comprehensive supervisory force. He followed an original blueprint of his own but permitted it to be conditioned by those around him. And consequently he built a program of instructional leadership seldom matched in cities of comparable size. The present superintendent followed his example. Unified supervisory programs do not come about by chance; there's a leader present.

The list of headquarters positions on page 139 reveals these realities of supervision:

1. It is not easy to separate the supervisory function completely from the administrative function. Responsibility in one case does not necessarily preclude effectiveness in the other.

2. The combination of responsibilities in a headquarters staff is bound to reflect the personnel at hand. For instance, in the list at hand, ability in both science and industrial arts has apparently placed the two services with the same person. The line-up of such positions, and the responsibilities within positions, in any school system shifts gradually over the years in line with turnover in staff.

In the program just outlined it is difficult to distinguish in-service training from curriculum planning, and supervision from either of them. In theory we attempt to classify and draw distinctions. In practice there is no need for staff personnel to stop to determine if their action of the moment is supervision or curriculum reorganization, supervision or in-service training.

The Montgomery County plan. In Montgomery County, Maryland, the 32,570 pupils are served by 1,210 teachers in 71 schools: 56 elementary, two elementary-high, seven junior high, three junior-senior high, and three senior high schools. The 29 positions that might be called supervisory are as follows:

- 8 Elementary General Supervisors
- 4 High School General Supervisors
- 1 Audio-Visual Supervisor
- 1 Art Supervisor
- 1 Library Service Supervisor
- 1 Physical Education Supervisor
- 1 Home Arts Supervisor
- 1 Special Education Supervisor
- 1 Curriculum Development Supervisor
- 1 Supervisor of Pupil Personnel
- 1 Psychologist
- 1 Tests and Measurements Supervisor
- 5 Visiting Teachers
- 2 Assistant Superintendents in Charge of Education

The major part of supervisory time is given to direct classroom help. The programs of first- and second-year teachers have major emphasis in this part of the work. This help is given by direct classroom supervision, demonstrations, group planning by grades, con-

ferences, and miscellaneous activities such as provision of materials.

The supervisor in charge of curriculum development for the elementary schools directs this planning through a co-ordinated program involving supervisors, principals, and teachers. The work with any one school staff is done within the framework of the county course of study, which is prepared by teachers, principals, and supervisors in summer workshops. The curriculum development on the secondary school level is done in a similar manner.

Course of study materials are prepared as needed through summer workshops usually scheduled for one month. For instance, recent workshops emphasized resource materials in such fields as mathematics, science, junior high school core program, and programs for slow learners. These workshops are under the direction of the assistant superintendent in charge of instruction, assisted by the supervisors.

The program of instructional leadership includes in-service training opportunities for all teachers on a voluntary basis, except for beginning teachers. They attend a series of orientation meetings throughout the year. Elementary supervisors work diligently at the problem of in-service training of many noncertificated teachers. All supervisory workers continuously work with the problem of rebuilding favorable public relations in a rapidly growing community, as well as orienting 200 to 300 new teachers annually.

The secondary supervisors tussle with such problems as broadening the program of general education and working with teachers trained in formal traditional colleges. As in the city of Evansville and the state of Florida, supervisors in Maryland's Montgomery County find a major problem to be that of load, which tends to preclude enough time for working with better teachers for encouragement, experimentation, and growth for the total system.

The supervisory staff works to build techniques for facing these problems through regular staff meetings, committees, and attendance at various types of professional meetings.²

THE PROGRAM DEMANDS PROPER ATMOSPHERE

Shifting emphasis. Not until the past couple of decades has there been much said or written about a supervisory program. Up until

² Montgomery County, Maryland, Public Schools, *A Long Term Study of the Supervisory Program*, October, 1951.

that time only supervision was mentioned, and it was treated as though it were the individual effort of this or that school official bearing the title or the responsibility. It is generally accepted today that such effort is dependent upon a planned program. If there is only one local or county supervisor in the picture, there is still room for planned operation. There are other resources to be tied into the effort.

This change in concept is not surprising. Years ago a good school was accepted as a miscellaneous assortment of classrooms with no over-all unity of effort. Today it represents close co-ordination of effort. For the concept of supervision to have shifted accordingly is natural.

The supervisory program is to supervision what the instructional program is to teaching. Regardless of the number of good teachers in a given school, effective teaching is dependent upon a co-ordinated effort that represents a planned instructional program. Regardless of the quality of a single teacher, the teaching in his classroom achieves the maximum only if moored to a master plan. And so with supervision. Regardless of the number of good supervisors in a school system, their efforts achieve the maximum only if correlated through a planned program of supervision.

This elevation of the program is highly significant. Perhaps the kernel of the modern concept of school supervision is the emphasis upon the total supervisory service and in turn the lack of attention to the one giving the service. In this setting the supervisor might be likened to an old shoe, easy to live with. In the earlier setting the supervisor was the new shoe, receiving a lot of attention. As long as the supervisor was the more important thing, each supervisor could go his own way. But with the service rather than the server as the important thing, all supervisory effort must grow out of a master plan. This means that one in a supervisory position cannot be accepted merely because of his position. He is to be accepted because of the service he renders. In the planning of supervisory programs teachers should play an important part. Supervisory service cannot meet instructional needs unless teachers are active in the planning.

Good working conditions. Standing at the top of the list of essentials of a good program are good working conditions. If they are already there, all the better. If they are not, they become the first goal of the supervisory effort. Beneath the surface intentions of good

human relationships may exist the roots of a former system of dogmatic instructional direction. It may be imbedded in a segment of the supervisory personnel, either principals or supervisors. It may be encased in a standardized curriculum fixed by earlier directives. It may be reflected in a classroom atmosphere devoid of wholesome pupil-teacher relationships.

To shift the emphasis of supervision from something to be feared to something to be welcomed first calls for recognition of such conditions as the three just mentioned. It can be accomplished best by the members of the supervisory staff working at the job of establishing teacher confidence in their good intentions. This cannot be accomplished by mimeographed bulletins that carry the good word. Nor can it be accomplished by fine phrases before an assemblage of teachers. The best medium is close and frequent personal contacts with teachers in their teaching situations. Once the teachers accept a supervisor as a person whom they like to have around, then they are in a position to profit by the supervisory help that may be available.

Good working conditions are not always dependent upon overcoming a sense of fear of supervision. Just as frequently, establishing a good program is dependent upon overcoming among teachers a feeling of futility about supervision. Perhaps the principals or the members of the headquarters staff who have frequented the teachers' classrooms, faculty meetings, and committee rooms have been most amiable folk, but also most ineffective in giving instructional help. Perhaps teachers have wasted their precious time in committee meetings that brought forth no instructional aid. Perhaps supervisory visits to the classrooms offered nothing more than a friendly smile. Such a situation as any of these is just as difficult to overcome in establishing good working relationships as is fear of supervision.

A simple approach to this problem is to give evidence just as soon as possible of the ability to help. The early development of some urgently needed instructional materials is one suggestion. There is nothing better than giving effective help to the teacher who is having difficulty in the classroom. Her appreciation carries over into the attitudes of her fellow teachers.

One poor way to redirect the supervisory program is to begin by calling teachers into groups to study the philosophy of education. To have to state the objectives of the new order before direct help can be brought to the child in the classroom is to gamble everything on

the ability to effect an academic meeting of the minds. Good principles of supervision and teaching will distinguish themselves more readily through effective supervisory and instructional action than through too early lip service.

The personal characteristics of the supervisor play an important part in the development of proper working conditions. These are treated at greater length in Chapters 9 and 13.

The supervisory process. Coming rapidly to the front in recent years in the discussion among school people has been the term "process." It has been noticeable in the treatment of instructional methods, in the attempt to secure in method itself the greatest return from inherent values for democratic training. The term "group process" has been especially noticeable in the discussions of the working relationships of administrators, supervisors, and teachers. This emphasis upon process has been carried forward in the literature dealing with supervision. It refers not so much to the specific program as to the way that those responsible go about it. It is generally agreed that regardless of how high the goals of a supervisory program, the process of achieving them must be democratic.

A nation-wide concern. The working relationships of the supervisory force as a topic of discussion can be found in the reports of conference after conference. The three examples which follow taken from reports in different sections of the country, reveal this common concern.

Georgia supervisors report—

1. What a person does to help improve relations:
 - He helps others to feel enhanced, but not insincerely.
 - He gives others feelings of security, but in such a way that they want to go on.
 - He gives others what they can appreciate.
 - He gives others an understanding of what he means.
 - He is able to listen well.
 - He faces reality, particularly with regard to psychological factors.
 - He takes himself where he is, but goes on.
2. Characteristics of a person who gets along well with others:
 - He has self-confidence.
 - He knows how to give other people as many opportunities as possible to help with planning, etc.
 - He has great respect for the worth of the individual in the group.
 - He shows that he knows that all behavior is caused.

His judgment and actions, as often as possible, are based on reflective thinking.

3. This means for supervisors:

We build on what teachers and others really want to know.

We help build resources which the teachers really want.

We let others help plan, and are not disappointed at the results.

We take individual differences into account.

We understand the other person as an individual.

We don't use good human relations just to get people to accept what we want them to accept.³

Louisiana supervisors report—

The feeling of insecurity within ourselves as leaders is often reflected in those with whom we work—teachers and children—and in the end is reflected in the national feeling. Insecurity is spread. How can we extend the feeling of security to others?

The same needs for security, success, mental health, and general growth are felt by our teachers as by our children. As supervisors, let us think of human development and needs instead of just child development. We must understand ourselves before we can begin to help others. Our responsibility as supervisors is not to impose upon our teachers our set of ideas, techniques, methods, and concepts, but through guidance to help them analyze, evaluate, and improve their own. We need to stimulate and challenge their ability. Individual differences exist among our teachers as well as among children. We need to develop in them a feeling of security, of success, of worth—a feeling of belonging, of self-confidence. This would be conducive to a good professional attitude and a desire to grow continually and guide children to a maximum all-around growth.

Every person is enthusiastic about ideas of his own. Is it necessary for the supervisor to inject his idea into the teacher's planning; or can a mere suggestion provoke the teacher's own ideas and plans? Better results are likely to result from the latter. We believe that feelings of security and freedom from tension in the children are best secured in the permissive atmosphere that surrounds the teachers who feel adequate, secure, released to develop the potentialities within themselves. This competency can be achieved when we regard supervision not as furnishing the answers, but as helping the teacher to solve his own problems. This gives him a feeling of belonging in the sense that he has an important role in helping to shape and direct this thing we call the educative process.

Supervisors, principals, teachers, and all concerned need to plan and work together for a clearer understanding of objectives before we can have a sound program of development. There must be more wholesome relationships among supervisors, principals, teachers, pupils, and parents

³ Georgia State Supervisors' Conference, Jane Franseth, *Building Better Human Relations* (Atlanta, October, 1951), p. 5.

for better understanding and better living. Let us try to help instead of showing how or telling how. Supervision must be a practice, not a theory.⁴

Maine reports on supervision:

The teacher holds the key position in any program of instruction or curriculum improvement, and success will depend largely upon her reaction. The growth of the teaching personnel should be cultivated slowly and naturally through experience; it cannot be compelled by authoritative order. Individual differences are as important among teachers as they are among children. The growth of the entire teaching staff will progress unevenly, and this must be accepted.

Changes should not be brought about at the expense of the mental or physical health of the personnel. Cooperation can usually be secured if careful attention is given to building the teacher's sense of security in the new program. Developing understanding of the new practices and principles is of definite assistance here. A sampling of general attitudes of value to supervisory officers:

1. Approach all teachers with an understanding that each has something she does well, has ideas to contribute, is interested in improvement, is able to grow.
2. Approach all teachers with an expectancy of co-operation, manifesting a friendly and co-operative attitude.
3. Approach all teachers with willingness and enthusiasm to share in new experiences.
4. Approach all teachers with the recognition that all good learning is to a certain extent exploratory.
5. Approach all teachers in the role of a helper, who is also seeking knowledge.
6. Approach all teachers with tolerance, sympathy, understanding, and patience.⁵

The idea of help. Throughout these three statements from different sections of the country is expressed the note of appreciation of the help the supervisor can give the teacher. However, in the theory of some group-process proponents today there is expressed fear of the concept of supervisor as giver. They point out that supervision as democratic co-operation is a much more advanced, and consequently more desirable, stage of supervision than supervision as giving service or help to the teacher. It is implied that the idea of

⁴Louisiana State Department of Public Education, *Setting Our Sights for Effective Supervision* (Baton Rouge: the Department, 1951), p. 11.

⁵Maine State Department of Education, *A Forward Step*, Curriculum Bulletin No. 7 (Augusta: the Department, 1948), pp. 96-98.

giving help to the teacher in the classroom is based on the old idea of selecting somebody as a superteacher to bring the right answers to others. The writer does not have this fear, for instructional improvement takes place today in a democratic atmosphere.

It should be said that these three references to state supervisory activity and thought are typical of the statements issued in supervisory conferences all over the country. The idea of supervision as help for a teacher is apparently here to stay. Naturally, it is hoped that such help will not represent forced feeding.

THE NATURE OF THE PROGRAM

Each school system develops its specific supervisory program in accordance with its aims, the personnel available, and the various other conditions of the local situation. For instance, in a county with only one supervisor for 200 teachers scattered among dozens of small schools there is no need for rationalization about the program to be offered. Instead, there is need for some careful calculation of the most effective way to scatter the leadership of that one supervisor so that it will do the most good for the most classrooms. We can set down the general principle that a supervisory bulletin is no substitute for a supervisory visit, but the relative value of such services can be fully determined only in the application to local conditions.

With but one staff member available in this case, it should be relatively easy to weigh values of one service against another. It should be relatively easy to conserve effort, to prevent lost motion, in supervision. But in a city school system with 30 positions of instructional leadership, it may be more difficult to avoid overlapping of effort, to prevent lost motion. It is just as essential to weigh values in services in one of these situations as in the other. Setting up an effective program suggests co-operative planning on the part of a large group. It might include such steps as these:

1. Taking inventory of the present program—personnel, strengths, shortages, and so on.
2. Establishing actual goals for the program, avoiding generalities but at the same time retaining ideals.
3. Determining any new services to be offered and any new positions to be established.

4. Developing the lines of operational relationship, responsibilities, and so on.
5. Deciding steps in the program, especially the more immediate undertakings.

Taking inventory. Supervisory planning seldom starts from scratch. It usually begins with an existing service. Who makes the appraisal of the present program? In this type of planning, some official had to have the original idea that the present program needed to be evaluated. This person may most likely be the superintendent, a principal, or a supervisor. At times the invitation might originate with a group of teachers. The investigation should be a co-operative undertaking including teachers as well as those in supervisory posts.

Establishing goals. Evaluating the present work in instructional improvement leads the group immediately into the matter of what is to be accomplished in supervisory effort. For example, as indicated in Chapter 7, the program will be judged by its provision for help to individual teachers, to the in-service advancement of the larger group, and to the instructional program itself. Once the goals are classified, present personnel can be matched against the items to help in determining shortages.

Determining new services. Goals indicate services, and services indicate personnel needed. To add a service does not necessarily mean adding a position. School administration needs to investigate sources of help outside the local system. The county office, the state office, the training institution, and the outside agency are continually supplementing local leadership. The sources of instructional bulletins and similar materials are extensive today for systems not large enough to afford much local production. Some school systems are much more adept than others in capitalizing upon these outside sources.

The administration has the responsibility of determining at intervals if the types of services rendered by the existing personnel could be shifted to better advantage. There may be four supervisors working out of a given school office, with major effort directed toward classroom visitation. Would it be better to divert one of the positions to another program such as help in curriculum development or measurement and evaluation? Services can often be added without adding personnel and without overloading the existing personnel.

Developing operational relationships. Developing relationships need not be a pressing concern in most school situations. The reference to Texas in Chapter 7 shows the interest that one state office has shown in it. The administrative code represents the more detailed approach that is often made in a large city system. In any case, it can be said that lines of contact should be kept relatively flexible, providing for the full emergence of individual talent.

Deciding steps in the program. Deciding steps in the program concerns the matter of laying out the jobs to be done. It can become quite specific. For instance, this year in curriculum development it may be a teachers' guide in elementary language arts. Or there may be an after-school workshop in a specific instructional field, such

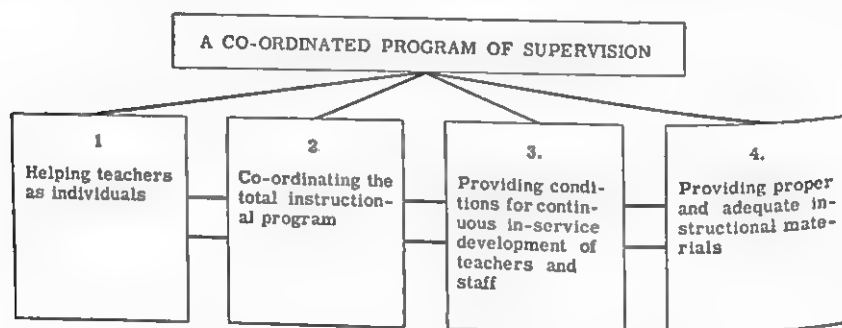


Figure 6. The Four Overlapping Fronts of Supervision.

as art. The amount of direct classroom supervision must be determined. Teachers usually appreciate the security of a well-planned program of service. Such planning need not preclude the flexibility that instructional service thrives upon.

Four fronts to the program. The supervisory program, in moving toward better instruction, may be thought of as having four somewhat distinct fronts. As pictured in Figure 6, these are: (1) helping teachers with their individual problems, (2) co-ordinating the total instructional program, (3) providing for the continuous in-service development of teachers and staff, and (4) providing proper and adequate instructional materials.

Any list such as this might be extended to cover more ground. It is intentionally limited here in an attempt to retain for supervision a function somewhat distinct from administration and instruction.

For instance, someone might have added developing community relationships as a fifth front. To accomplish the four objectives set out, those bearing the supervisory responsibility will naturally from time to time deal with school patrons, civic leaders, and other non-school personnel. But such endeavor is not an end in itself. Its goal is found in the four fronts listed above.

As indicated earlier, these four fronts of supervisory operation are not wholly separate endeavors. Their distinction is more in purpose than in program. They needed to be set out separately to remind us that all four of these things should be accomplished in a well-rounded, well-correlated supervisory program. Perhaps the larger the supervisory staff, and the larger the program, the more difficult it is to retain this proper correlation of effort.

For instance, in Los Angeles, providing and developing adequate instructional materials is handled by a large curriculum staff. The supervision of teachers in the classroom is handled by another supervisory staff. In a smaller school system, the classroom supervisors also take the responsibility for developing instructional materials. This in turn brings teachers together in an in-service training situation. Thus, in this case, three of the four efforts listed above are rolled into one.

Galveston, Texas, refers to the central office personnel as consultants rather than supervisors, because that title better describes the duties and functions that they perform. In that school system the supervisory program includes three overlapping fields: direct classroom supervision, curriculum development, and in-service training. The Director of Elementary Education, the Director of Secondary Curriculum and Guidance, and the various consultants engage in all three parts of the program. However, most of the direct classroom supervision is done by the consultants, whereas curriculum development and in-service programs are co-ordinated and conducted by the two directors. This personnel as treated is outlined in the line-and-staff Figure 3, in Chapter 2.

The four phases of the program, as outlined here, may not serve the thinking and conditions of the reader's particular school situation. Overgeneralization is apt to seem dogmatic. That is not intended. Perhaps it is best to say that this simplification of the multifarious program of school supervision should represent a point of departure

rather than a point of arrival in supervisory planning. A more detailed breakdown of the supervisory program is included in Chapter 9, as an accounting of how supervisors spend their time.

TWO DISTINCT FORCES IN A SUPERVISORY PROGRAM

The general objective of a supervisory program is the improvement of instruction. The four major fronts in this drive have just been treated. However, within every program are apparent two different approaches to the objective. They may be called continuous movements. The two are advanced side by side, both highly essential. One is the attack upon a broad front. It is the wholesale improvement of the work of many teachers. The other is the concentration upon a very limited sector, perhaps a single classroom or a single school. The lists of a few representative activities that follow reveal these two distinct approaches.

Broad supervision:

The development of science teaching guides for all elementary classrooms.

Committee study and selection of social studies materials for city-wide use.

A study of the better adjustment of the school system's first grade program to the maturity of the children.

Helping to organize and to conduct a three-week workshop devoted to guidance and counseling in the county schools.

Concentrated supervision:

Helping a beginning teacher who has had difficulty in classroom management.

Arranging a schedule of visitation for two teachers of a junior high school who wish to inaugurate a combination citizenship-English core course.

Providing some additional reading material for a primary teacher who has been using a single set of readers.

Working with the staff of a small rural high school which is to be evaluated later in the year by an accrediting committee.

Working with a weak teacher who is serving the last year of a three-year probationary term.

Perhaps the first of these two functions, broad supervision, could be called the long-range function. It deals with general principles, with the idea that school operation calls for continuous study and improvement. It is based on the idea that regardless of how good

the individual teacher or classroom, continuous study is rewarding. Curriculum planning and in-service training are the popular vehicles of this movement. Co-operative effort supplies the locomotion. This function is the more ambitious one. It proposes to move whole departments, or whole school systems, or whole staffs of teachers at a time.

The second function, concentrated supervision, is in a sense day-by-day operation. At times it resembles trouble shooting. Not every classroom teacher finds the going simple each day. Not every classroom can await the eventual help that is to accrue from the long-range curriculum program or in-service course. The welfare of a group of children may be involved. Or new materials may be a blessing in a given classroom right now. It implies that in spite of the general advancement made by means of the first function, there is a breakdown here or there that must be cared for in a hurry.

In the minds of some, this second function may be looked upon as the ugly duckling. It lacks the fine plumage of the broad supervisory movements of curriculum planning and in-service. At times it has to pick away at a single classroom, or a single teacher. And to some this smacks of the old-time supervision, the period we wish to forget. However, this second function is just as essential as the first, if the children are to be served. The two are teammates. Only by helping to strengthen the single classroom or school, through concentrated attention at the moment, can the program of broad supervision move ahead. This second function does not call for a different personal touch from the first. The same warm and sincere human touch is asked of supervision in both. Any good supervisory program includes both long-time projects of some breadth and day-by-day instructional thrusts. There is more idealism, there is more glamour, in the former. There is a lot of practical realism in the latter. Both are highly effective.

Most aspects of the modern supervisory program deal with the improvement of instruction in a most impersonal manner. The curriculum or some specific phase of it is the center of attention. There are, however, some activities in the program that represent concern mainly for the improvement of the teaching personnel. Here again much of this is impersonal because it is the in-service training sort of thing, dealing with teachers in groups. But as indicated above, at times there are cases in which supervision becomes personal. At

times attention must be centered upon a specific teacher or classroom. Somebody in a supervisory capacity has to be highly concerned about the educational outcomes for a specific group of children.

Apportioning and shifting the services. It is reasonable to expect the supervisory program to shift its relative emphasis to fit the conditions of time and place. The varying conditions in the examples that follow readily suggest the adjustment of the program to meet the needs of the moment.

1. In a large city, half of the teachers in one large elementary school are entering the classroom for the first time. This calls for an ample allotment of direct classroom help. The beginning teacher profits more by this than by in-service courses, curriculum committee work, or similar more general programs. In another school of similar size in this city, all the teachers but one are highly experienced. Where classroom supervision is limited, an equal distribution of the service to these schools would be impractical.

2. A large high school is installing for the first time a new double-hour core course. There are four sections of the course, three teachers working in each. This venture justifies pulling in supervisory service from other fields and programs. The period of time for such concentration of personnel would be determined as the work progressed.

3. In a state which selects and supplies elementary textbooks at the state level, a new series of readers has just gone into the schools. In a number of the county schools, this series will comprise the bulk of the textbooks used in reading. This condition of the moment challenges the county office to provide the group meetings and the school visitation that will assure maximum educational returns upon the state's investment in the new reading program.

4. A city system has concentrated its supervisory help for three years upon the development of teaching guides in the more common fields of instruction. The last of these materials have now gone to press. The redirection of this supervisory time and effort should be carefully planned rather than permitted to find miscellaneous outlets by chance.

5. A school system has just adopted a salary schedule for the first time. It provides a number of increments with the teacher's movement from one step to the next dependent upon continuous growth

and development. The administration expects to handle this by in-service training, with a more or less simple system of accounting. Up until this time the supervisory program has leaned heavily toward direct classroom help, supplemented by demonstrations, faculty meetings, and some committee endeavor in the development of teaching guides. The proposal for a new in-service training program calls for staff leadership in setting up the miscellaneous group activities that will comprise it.

This list could be supplemented by as many examples as there are schools to be considered. There is usually the problem of a limited amount of personnel with a maximum number of demands for help. In nearly every instance, when the supervisory personnel is limited, attention is first given to the new or probationary teachers. This reflects the ancient lineage of supervision, the fact that historically it was first provided to compensate for the poor preparation of teachers. The other impetus was the overload of the superintendent's office. Even with good preparation, the beginning teacher deserves the clasp of a helping hand, the assurance of one who has helped others apply their training to the classroom.

VESTED INTERESTS

Educational endeavor, from the time that it became organized, has faced the curse of vested interest. The very creation of a school means that in time its original practices may represent the security of individuals connected with them. For instance, on the campus the emergence of newer course combinations represents conflict with the existing departmental alignment of offerings. For two decades the concept of core courses at the high school level has failed to receive a proper tryout. This is due in no small part to the vested interests represented by the traditional subject departments in both the high school and the training institution. Desirable change in materials of instruction or school equipment is often delayed because of the vested interest of the manufacturers in the existing materials or equipment.

Supervision is a service, but at times it threatens to become a vested interest in one or more aspects of the program. This is readily understandable. A city, county, or state can provide only a reasonable amount of instructional leadership for the teacher. In the beginning,

this was represented wholly by special supervisors going into the classrooms. To this service were added annual institutes consisting mainly of addresses, some dealing with instructional matters and some with so-called inspirational subjects.

As teaching progressed as a profession, research and graduate endeavor brought forth miscellaneous types of staff services for teachers. As discussed in Chapter 5, to classroom supervision and institutes have been added services in such areas as testing and measurement, child guidance and personnel, curriculum development, and audio-visual materials. Furthermore, numerous services have been blanketed under the general title of in-service training.

In the development of a well-rounded program of instructional leadership, the creation of any one new service for teachers calls for the revaluation of existing services. If a school system endorses a curriculum staff as a necessary program in the improvement of instruction, does this represent a supplementary investment? Or does it represent a shifting in point of view in supervisory values, which calls for a replacement of some of the older services? Any existing service is in a sense a vested interest of one or more parties. It may be simpler to supplement deficiency supervisory services than to displace them. The latter is costly to the taxpayer as well as confusing to the teacher.

Most school systems cannot afford to provide a varied supervisory program. If the school situation is one with a meager budget, the existing supervisory service may act as a vested interest to prevent its replacement by a more promising type of program. For instance, a city or county system may have originally invested its supervisory money in two or three special subject supervisors. That same budget allotment might bring a more varied or broader program today. The schools in question may be greatly in need of leadership in providing and developing instructional materials in various fields.

This is not to say that new services should always replace former ones. It is to say that any supervisory function, new or old, must be justified by its actual contribution to instruction and learning. It cannot hold its position merely because it represents a vested interest. If the machinery of supervision cannot change from time to time, those in charge can hardly expect to guarantee to the instructional program the normal changes that it deserves. It is just as essential

for administration to judge supervisory output as it is to judge instructional output.

Large city systems especially must guard against building up large central office instructional staffs that may outgrow their function. Bureaucracy in supervision is always a threat in a large school system. The teacher who is brought in for a year's work in curriculum planning often stays on as a staff member. Upon the superintendency falls the responsibility of guarding against a specialized supervisory service becoming an end in itself. It is relatively easy for an original single supervisor in a special field to become a director of a staff of supervisors in that field. This is not to say that instructional service should not expand. It is merely to point out that expansion should reflect neither the enthusiasm nor the self-interest of personnel. It should pass the test of contribution to child and teacher.

Leadership cannot be exercised in a vacuum. It always has a setting. The setting for supervisory leadership is the learning situation that comprises teachers and their pupils. But the setting is not that restricted, because overlapping the inner circle of teacher and child are many interlocking factors that can make or break an instructional program. Among these are parental interest and attitude, the building facilities, the instructional materials, the administrative attitudes, state curriculum requirements, and community problems that to a degree condition learning. It is not surprising that supervisory activities cover a wide range.

Co-ordinated effort. Frequent meetings of the supervisory staff is one of the best safeguards against scattered effort and the subsequent frustration or confusion on the part of teachers. As noted earlier in the chapter, with reference to Evansville, planned staff meetings can assure a co-ordinated supervisory program. A good example of this on the county level is the Montgomery County, Maryland, staff effort. These instructional staff members meet together every other Friday afternoon to discuss their work. Topics calling for previous study are presented by committees. Some of the phases of the instructional and supervisory programs presented in the Montgomery County study program have been:

1. Policies and procedures in providing opportunities for prospective teachers to observe and to do practice teaching.
2. Preparation of bulletins to parents interpreting the school program.

3. Plans for utilizing the service of outside consultants in the study program aimed toward the improvement of reading instruction.

4. The development of procedures to make effective use of the group cooperative techniques in supervision.

5. A statement of policies and procedures for the selection of textbooks and materials for classroom use.

6. A revision of the lists of materials from which schools make selections for ordering.

7. A review of the professional activities in which teachers are now engaged, looking toward relief to teachers in tensions while making professional advancement.

8. Improvement in home-school reporting and relationships.

9. The development of a deeper understanding of the purposes for which tests are used, and the development of techniques for using the test data for the improvement of instruction rather than using them for comparative purposes.

10. Better adjustment of teaching and materials of instruction to the needs of the accelerated child.

11. Summarization of data with which teachers need to be familiar in order to relate their own living and teaching to the community and the children.

12. A study of the relations between pupil personnel workers, teachers, and principals in order to provide improved teaching services for children.

13. A review of the practices used in the coordination of parent groups with the program of the schools.

14. A survey to identify the atypical child and to provide a program under school conditions which will give him maximum opportunities for his development.

15. A study of the school library service to take advantage of the county library system and improve it in general.

16. An analysis of the art program at all levels.

17. An appraisal of the television program in order to provide for a long term, continuous program and to make effective use of the school's contribution to it.

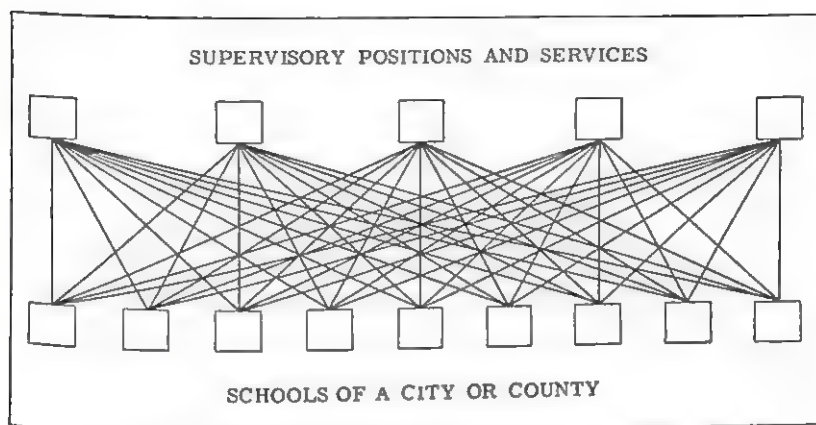
18. A study of the mental hygiene of children as it is affected by classroom procedures.

19. Continuous study of curriculum development.⁶

THE CENTER OF EFFORT

From an academic viewpoint, the individual school or classroom may look like a sitting duck, a prime target for a planned program of supervision. This is not true. The school or the classroom is not to be mistaken as a locus of a school system. If this were so, it

⁶ Montgomery County, Maryland, *op. cit.*



EVERY SUPERVISORY SERVICE OPERATING INDEPENDENTLY

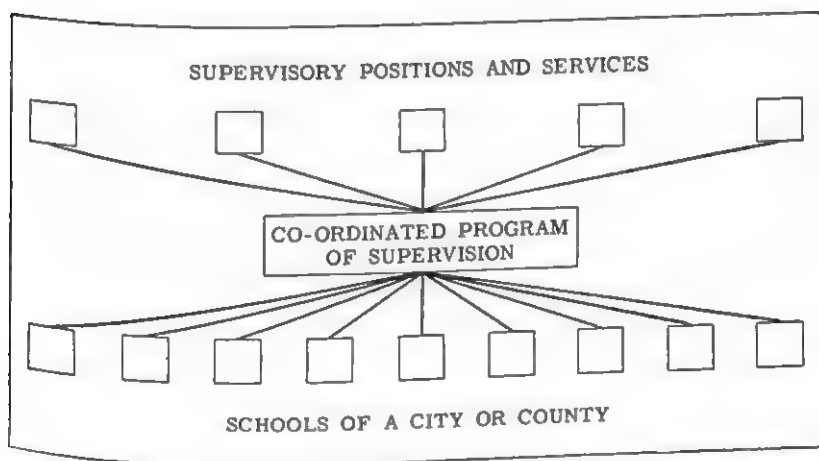


Figure 7. The Contrast Between Unorganized Supervision and Organized.

would be the mere agent of a central headquarters that sends out directives, courses of study, and supervisors to see that the city-wide or county-wide pattern is carried out.

Instead, the idea of the function of supervision is best appreciated by beginning with the school, not with the headquarters staff. In fact, begin with the teacher in a classroom with her group of pupils. *The classroom is the basic unit in a school system. The teacher is the basic operator.* The teacher holds the key position in any program of instruction, and consequently in any program of instruc-

tional improvement. This truth will never be overlooked in schools where the principal and the supervisor live close to the teachers.

The program of supervision must not be planned in an academic manner around a given number of supervisory positions, or around a given set of objectives. It should be planned around the work, the thinking, and the attitudes of teachers. In turn it will draw into proper place the supervisory personnel in a correlated effort. The supervisory program, services, and facilities then act as resources for the teacher. If this viewpoint is retained, supervision will always be subservient to instruction. It will not steal the spotlight from teaching.

In no way does this idea detract from the importance of organizing for supervision. Instead, it enhances the idea of an organized program of instructional improvement. In concluding this point, let us diagram the importance of organization. In Figure 7 is represented a supervisory staff at work. In one instance there is no co-ordinating plan, every service being on its own. In the other, the total effort is co-ordinated by means of a planned program. Certainly the teacher deserves the protection of planning. Perhaps the value of a supervisory program can best be measured by the degree of affection and respect shown for the service by the teachers themselves. The supervisor and the principal are the main agents in the provision of this service. Their roles are treated in the next two chapters.

For Further Consideration

How many supervisors per 100 teachers should a state provide for adequate supervision in those districts unable to employ supervisory personnel? What should be the formula in a large city system? If a school system works in an autocratic atmosphere that emanates from the superintendent's office, can the supervisory staff work in the schools democratically? How can a new supervisor overcome the handicap of a predecessor who believed in inspection? What are some of the services that are essential to a good supervisory program? How might a supervisory service become a vested interest rather than a true service?

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9

The Position of Supervisor

AMERICAN democracy's first line of defense is her public schools. This security is represented by the long line of teachers' classrooms, which, if placed end to end, should reach completely round the educational rights and requirements of all her children and youth. The strength of this chain is dependent upon proper supervision, the service itself upon the supervisor.

A special supervisory position. Although the responsibility for instructional supervision does not rest with a single position, practice indicates the acceptance and popularity of the clearly defined position of supervisor. In this chapter we are concerned with this special post. It has the distinction of bearing the title of the service. It has the distinction of 100 per cent devotion to instructional matters. The responsibilities for instructional improvement as shared by the principalship and the superintendency are treated in other sections of this book.

The supervisor's original entrance upon the school stage was prompted by the administrator's engagement with organizational and managerial details. Somebody was needed to go into the classrooms, to the real seat of the educational enterprise. In addition to its mission of service to the teacher, the position of supervisor quite naturally came in with liaison characteristics. It represented the establishment of a direct connection between the central office and the classroom.

Even though not vested with administrative authority, in a sense the supervisor came in as the agent of an administrator. It was a simple matter of the busy superintendent's assigning some of his own responsibilities to a new position. It was quite natural for the supervisor to report back to the superintendent about conditions

in the schools. And because of such reporting it was evident that the scope of his responsibilities would sooner or later become an issue. The question of the supervisor's possible responsibility for judging teaching effectiveness is treated in Chapter 20.

THE SUPERVISOR'S QUALIFICATIONS

The issue of teaching ability. At one time, without a doubt, the supervisor was looked upon as a master teacher. The ability to take over the class at any time, to show the teacher how the job could be done better, was accepted as a prerequisite of the assignment. In other words, his first competence was in teaching. This point of view is often questioned today in the theory of supervision. With the wide range of activities now assigned to supervisory leadership, it is frequently pointed out that the supervisor and the teacher are placed in complementary and quite distinctive positions. This does not mean that one cannot help the other in the classroom, but it is said that a supervisor might be most effective and yet not be a superior classroom teacher.

Consequently, to what degree the supervisor is expected to be a master teacher is a moot question. States supporting a supervisory program commonly placed great emphasis upon successful classroom experience in selecting the personnel. However, the declining emphasis upon top classroom performance is expressed in such statements as this one by Caswell:

The best classroom teacher might not be a good supervisor, and the best supervisor might not be a superior classroom teacher. The supervisor must be effective in cooperative leadership with adults, in organization, and in the identification of problems. A broad knowledge must be possessed of teaching procedures and of materials of instruction. But it should be expected that classroom teachers may frequently be more able in actually working with children than is the supervisor. In fact, one of the problems of the supervisor is to discover the high levels of competence among teachers and to utilize them for the good of the entire group. A competent supervisor and a competent teacher will work together effectively because their activities and areas of competence are complementary and not competitive.¹

Perhaps the exact relationship of the two parties in question cannot be arbitrarily determined. It no doubt is dependent upon the given

¹ H. L. Caswell, "How Shall Supervision Be Advanced?" *Educational Method*, 21:1 (October, 1941), p. 7. By permission of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

situation and the relative abilities of both the teacher and the supervisor. If the former is quite inexperienced, certainly the supervisor may quite normally play the role of master teacher. However, if the teacher is highly experienced and competent, there is limited chance of the supervisor's playing the role of demonstrator of teaching techniques. We can expect broad teaching experience at the level of placement to remain high up on the average list of desirable supervisory characteristics. The supervisor who keeps the classroom teacher's viewpoint is indeed wise.

Today's supervisor gains stature in various ways besides direct classroom supervision. A few of these include (1) organizing a group to get certain work done, (2) planning in-service training programs, and (3) evaluating instructional materials. Supervisors still need to know good teaching techniques, but their knowledge and skill must go far beyond. This includes child growth and development and a good background of general education. A person may be skilled in the machinery of classroom management, but yet be woefully lacking in general knowledge.

A skill asked of all supervisors today is that of working gracefully and effectively with people individually and in groups. No amount of either general education or skill in classroom management will make up for the lack of ability to work with others.

Frequently a skilled classroom teacher who works effectively with his pupils is excused for his shortcomings in working with adults. But the supervisor is one whose success is always dependent upon ability to work with teachers and other adults. The education of the child is highly dependent upon good professional relationships. Now and then the report of a conference in the field will list improved relationships with staff as something still to be worked for in the future of supervision.

Jane Franseth of the United States Office of Education, a recognized leader in the field of school supervision, has summarized the role of the supervisor in this one paragraph:

The role of the school supervisor is changing. Where supervisors have become good resource people, the small eraser announcing the arrival of the supervisor has no place. More often than not, she arrives at school because of an invitation from the teachers or the principal. She comes to render a special service which she has been asked to do. Sometimes she stops at the school to find out if there is any way in which she can

help. Sometimes she asks permission to observe a particular project in which there has been much interest. Sometimes a schedule of supervisory visits is planned by teachers and principals for a period of a month or so in advance. Evaluation goes on, but everybody concerned participates in it. School supervision at its best is a resource or expert service provided on a consultation basis to improve education for children. Good supervision is leadership which helps to provide an environment in which everybody can contribute his best.²

Personal characteristics. In state supervisory conferences it is common for the study groups to consider the characteristics of the ideal supervisor. The lists of personal traits necessary for success include so many of the qualities that a person appreciates in his friends. For instance, in one list are found sincerity, fairness, easy approachability, respect for individuals, humility, and sympathy. To these were added these specific qualities: leadership, skill as a teacher, and knowledge of child growth and development.

In another case the desire is for a person in the job who values honesty, derives pleasure from his work, is open-minded, and has a helpful attitude. Merely being a good listener is at times as helpful a quality as the supervisor can display. Tensions among teachers are not uncommon, and being able to tell an understanding supervisor about them can be a great help.

THE SUPERVISORY APPROACH

Classroom visits. Just because a teacher can stand a classroom full of children is no sign that she can be relaxed when the supervisor steps in. Bartky points out that "at best teaching results in serious nervous tensions. These tensions arise from anxieties involving the welfare of the children, the leadership conflict between children and teacher, the desire to please parents and administrators, the question of job security, and hundreds of other occupational and personal worries."³

Certainly there is no reason for a supervisor to add to such tensions. There is no reason for supervision itself if it is to have such results. The useful supervisor is the one who is accepted on the same grounds as another teacher. A feeling of equal worth engenders equal

² Jane Franseth, *Learning to Supervise Schools* (Washington, D. C.: United States Office of Education), p. 21.

³ John Bartky, "Helping Teachers Teach," *School and Society*, 66:1709 (September 27, 1947), p. 244.

respect. He is not there to stifle initiative and skill; he is there to encourage them.

Good classroom supervision is a matter of helping teachers to help themselves. Some need more help than others in using their native endowments and their skills to the best advantage. However, all supervision cannot be preventive. Some of it is bound to be corrective in the sense that it helps to eliminate instructional ineffectiveness. This correction may be of materials or methods.

All supervision cannot be creative. Most of it is constructive, but only a portion reaches the higher creative level. It is constructive in that it is building better instruction. This may be in building plans, programs, or materials. It may be in building strength and confidence.

Group work. Much of the leadership provided teachers will be in committee work or other group situations. This is so because supervisory personnel is always limited, and its most economical approach is by working with teachers in groups rather than as individuals. The group approach is a time saver, provided the leader is skilled in group procedures. An effective demonstration before 25 teachers may do half the work of visits to 25 different classrooms in behalf of the same goal. However, group effort must be protected against waste. Among its dangers are these:

1. Calling teachers together for trivialities.
2. Devoting the time of a meeting to long reports that might better have been handled through bulletins sent to the participants.
3. Giving attention to matters not accepted by the group of teachers as important to them.

In the following chapter is included a section dealing with principles of group leadership. The suggestions there for the principal are applicable here. Reference was also made to the group process in Chapter 6.

Perhaps this whole process of helping teachers can be simplified by thinking of two aspects of an instructional situation: (1) the needs, and (2) the resources. The supervisor who in sizing up a school situation can determine the needs is then challenged to bring resources to bear upon the situation. This calls for two abilities. First, there is the ability to work with a single teacher or a group of teachers to determine things that need to be done. Second, there

is the ability to locate resources and to bring them to bear upon such needs. These are examples of this ability:

Needs

1. The desire for greater understanding of primary-age children.
2. The need of ability in art techniques of various types.
3. A more extensive knowledge of the economic life of the community.

Resources

1. An in-service course conducted weekly by an instructor from a near-by college.
2. An art work center set up in the county school office, open evenings and Saturday morning.
3. Business-education day set aside each year when teachers are guests of business houses and industrial plants.

There is no reason to fear that the one who holds a supervisory position will not be active. The fear is that the action may be poorly timed or actually too intensive. A few cautions to well-meaning instructional leaders are these: Don't lose teachers in a flood of words that represent generalities or verbalisms. Don't be carried away by an enthusiasm that rushes a teacher away from her necessary security. Don't inhibit individual creativeness. Avoid riding into the classroom an educational hobby that may better be tied outside the door. Remember that orders may change work patterns but not teacher beliefs. Be consistent with teachers. The teacher appreciates the supervisor who is consistent in philosophy; the teacher has the right to expect the same person each time that the supervisor calls.

Ideal supervisors

are consistent
are not fault finding
do not look for trouble
do not inject anxiety
accept teachers at their various levels
are patient
are courageous
attack complacency
do not elevate into importance petty details or their own whims
are not impressed by their own rank

have skill in working with groups
know effective classroom procedures
know instructional materials and their sources
are good resource people
know where to secure other resource personnel
get out into the classrooms
are effective in their work
work hard but do not overdo it
have interests outside the profession

show no favoritism among teachers
 look for ideas and abilities
 don't shirk their responsibilities
 commend effort and accomplishment
 have faith in other people
 get along well with people

can co-ordinate the efforts of many
 are students of their field
 exhibit emotional stability
 maintain appropriate personal appearance
 are ethical
 give suggestions

Suggestions wanted. Suggestion has replaced dictation in the basic principles of supervision today. Nor is suggestion the wolf of dictation masquerading in sheep's clothing. In those few instances in which theory discredits suggestion, no doubt this masquerade is implied. Teachers want suggestions from instructional helpers whom they respect. There's no reason they shouldn't have them. This side action in no way deters the fine work of group planning that characterizes today's program of instructional improvement.

Teachers seem to be able to work with almost anyone who has some practical help to offer them. Perhaps the greatest honor that can come to a supervisor is to be asked by a teacher to lend a helping hand. There is a psychological advantage for the supervisor in a situation in which his advice is solicited rather than offered. This does not mean that help is withheld until solicited.

Now and then a current discussion of the subject will suggest that modern supervision retain a bit of the aggravating quality that it reflected earlier in this century. Such a point was made in one of the more recent yearbooks of the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association: "The aggravating function may seem out of place in the scheme of supervision, but it is not. It means needling into action. It is the thing that cranks up the human engine so that motivation can take over and furnish the power of self-propulsion. It is the same aggravation that moves one out of his easy chair and gets him to clean up a dirty basement."⁴

Schools define the position. The time has passed when filling a supervisory position called for no more thought than appointing a "deserving teacher." It is common for school systems to set up standards for the position, standards which are held up to those

⁴ Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, *The Rural Supervisor at Work*, Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1949), p. 13.

already in the position as well as being used to guide future selection. For instance, the Atlantic City standards are:

1. A supervisor should be a friendly person who is a good listener. A teacher should feel free to come to him with any problem at any time. He should be a person who is well-balanced emotionally, a person who likes people, who wants to help people, and who realizes that the way to help them is to cause them to use their unique abilities in working with others.

2. A supervisor should be a person who is widely read in general fields as well as in the fields or areas in which he works.

3. A supervisor should have a "well digested" philosophy. This means that he should not only have read about philosophy but should have discussed it with many people, and should have lived his philosophy in such a way that it is a part of him and not just words and phrases.

4. A supervisor should be one who speaks with true authority. He should never appeal to the authority of his position, or at least should do so as little as possible. He should, in working with teachers, rest upon the authority of what is good and right, and what will work and what will not—all to receive the test of use in the classroom.

5. A supervisor should be one that believes in and practices the use of reason in meeting and solving problems, rather than in the appeal to emotion or to tradition.

6. Finally, and perhaps most important, a supervisor today should be one who is an expert in the understanding and use of group leadership techniques.⁵

STATE PROVISIONS AND REQUIREMENTS

Most states provide for a supervisor's certificate today. The one who qualifies for the certificate in Texas must hold a master's degree, must have had three years of successful teaching service at the level to be supervised, and must present 18 hours of advanced course credits in these fields: supervision of instruction, curriculum and methods, child development, and school administration. Half of the work shall be specifically in the field of supervision of instruction.⁶

In Tennessee, counties, cities, and special school districts may include in their minimum school program, at state aid, additional teaching positions designated as supervising teachers. The number of such positions is determined by this classroom-teacher formula:

⁵ Atlantic City, New Jersey, "Philosophy and Nature of Supervision," *Public School Bulletin*, 27:2 (May, 1951), p. 5.

⁶ Texas Education Agency, "Texas Supervisors," *Supervisor's Exchange*, Vol. 1, No. 1 (March, 1951), p. 1.

one-half position for 20-49 teachers, one for 50-199, two for 200-399, three for 400-599, and four positions for 600 or more teachers.

Requirements for the position include graduation from an approved college and possession of a permanent professional supervisor's credential. The credential is dependent upon 24 months of experience, in actual school work in the field in which the supervising teacher is to serve. The experience shall have been within the five years next preceding the date of initial employment.

As it gives the support for this program of instructional improvement, the state retains quite a bit of the control. The Tennessee State Commissioner has the right to adjust the formula in a number of instances to fit local conditions, such as the case of sparsely populated areas. Local or county selection of personnel demands application for approval to the State Commissioner. Approval comes only after interview by that office. Changes in existing personnel call for state approval. The annual program of a supervising teacher must be submitted to the state office as well as to the local or county office. The state prescribes or approves the forms on which the monthly reports are prepared, and asks that copies be filed there. "Failure of a supervising teacher to submit these required reports shall constitute grounds for not including the position in determining the cost of the minimum school program."⁷

In California, the requirements for an elementary school supervision credential include 24 semester hours of upper division or graduate work in addition to holding the general elementary credential. Training shall have included work in the principles and practices of curriculum construction, evaluation and measurement of educational achievement, counseling and guidance, child study, and parent education. The graduate or undergraduate training shall include work in organization and administration, supervision of instruction, and curriculum in the elementary schools. Two years of successful teaching in an elementary school are also required.

The legal statements treating the qualifications for the position are always going to sound meager and formal. They must eventually be interpreted in terms of personalities.

A good classroom teacher may be a poor prospect for a supervisory position if she lacks experience in working with adult groups

⁷ Tennessee State Board of Education, *Rules and Regulations* (Nashville: the Board, July, 1951), pp. 3-5.

in enterprises calling for accomplishment. Exercising influence in such enterprises is good training for supervisory leadership.

The evil of a self-contained professional life and interest in the case of a teacher is a warning against appointment to a position of supervision. Teachers with such tendencies may quite easily feed them with the added responsibilities of supervision. There is no substitute for breadth of interest in life, for hobbies outside the job.

School systems, especially large city systems, can give teachers special assignments with curriculum committees, book committees, or similar activity calling for group endeavor. Such work is good training for leadership assignments. Experience in analyzing situations similar to the ones directed by supervisors are helpful as training.

Among other qualities that serve the supervisor well are deep loyalty, the desire to serve rather than to dominate, unselfishness, and a knowledge of the work to be done.

THE THINGS THAT SUPERVISORS DO

It has been said that the greatest labor-saving device today is tomorrow. However, there is little evidence that the typical supervisor will get around to using it. He works as though the job had to be finished by nightfall, or at least before the next sunrise. This reflects in part the immensity of the job of instructional improvement and the limited number of supervisors assigned to the task. It likewise reflects a sincerity of effort, an earnestness that is seldom surpassed in professional endeavor.

The presentation of the supervisor's daily stint might emphasize the theory of what should be done. Or it might emphasize what is actually being done. The latter seems more practical, for a number of reasons. By and large, things that supervisors are now doing are apt to be the things expected of new appointees. The wide variation among local school situations discourages any attempt to prescribe program. A few basic activities are common from Maine to California and from Montana to Florida. These include classroom visits, demonstrations, the work of curriculum committees, and conference participation. Beyond such common activities there exists a wide and varied range of supervisory endeavor, which is as it should be.

The list that follows represents a conscientious attempt to bring together a typical cross section of the activities found in the work schedules of city and county supervisors. Some of the items may

appear to be somewhat specialized for the general supervisor. If such are listed here, it means that they are responsibilities handled as well as possible by the supervisor in the absence of a more specialized position, such as a research or curriculum office.

There is no attempt to sort or classify these things that supervisors do. The one who carries out a program of miscellaneous work does not stop to distinguish curriculum planning from demonstration, or group leadership from direct classroom help.

These are the things the supervisor is busy doing:

1. Helps to organize a guidance program.
2. Demonstrates teaching techniques.
3. Prepares exhibits of instructional materials and work done in the classrooms.
4. Conducts excursions of teachers of an in-service nature.
5. Writes reports of the work for school administrative offices.
6. Prepares bulletins to be circulated among the teachers and schools.
7. Helps a faculty group effect changes in the daily schedule.
8. Helps teachers in lesson planning.
9. Holds conferences with principals, superintendents, and teachers in connection with the work.
10. Attends and contributes to faculty meetings.
11. Helps teachers set up a system for recording pupil progress.
12. Makes suggestions for the proper use of school facilities in the case of overcrowded conditions.
13. Gives leadership in the establishment of testing and evaluation programs.
14. Encourages the use of special materials, such as audio-visual equipment.
15. Stimulates school library improvements.
16. Promotes volunteer study groups.
17. Leads teacher-parent study of home reports.
18. Attends state and national conferences, and reports proceedings to teachers and superintendents.
19. Arranges for resource personnel from a college to help in a local study program.
20. Helps with establishment of curriculum policies in a school.
21. Visits schools outside her own jurisdiction for help and inspiration.
22. Arranges school visiting schedules for teachers.
23. Uses teachers to serve as demonstrators of teaching techniques in which they have been successful.
24. Helps teachers to set up simple experimental classroom procedures and to evaluate them.
25. Arranges professional reading lists for teachers.
26. Promotes carefully organized parent visiting days

27. Interprets the school program to community groups.
28. Shares the good things one school is doing with another.
29. Advances with a local school the co-operative buying of instructional materials through the county office.
30. Works with schools in the effective use of the county bookmobile service.
31. Sets up a central library of classroom books to help teachers and schools in their book selection.
32. Serves teachers and schools as specialist in sources of availability of films, free materials, books, and other instructional aids.
33. Uses state and county library consultants in local school study programs.
34. Promotes membership in appropriate professional organizations, such as the Association of Childhood Education, National Council for the Teachers of English, National Education Association, etc.
35. Attends school board meetings.
36. Aids the local administrator in evaluating instruction in a school or in a particular classroom.
37. Sets up or participates in workshops and conferences for teachers.
38. Leads curriculum committees in the development of teaching guides or instructional materials.
39. Co-ordinates the services of nonschool agencies to aid in the work of the teachers.
40. Helps the administration in the recruitment and selection of teachers.
41. Brings resource persons to the teachers.
42. Solicits the participation of the principal in supervision and aids in the development of such skill.
43. Provides program of orientation for new teachers.
44. Aids teachers with special pupils, such as slow learners, problem students, and talented students.
45. Assists in grade school evaluation.
46. Teaches the use of motion picture projectors and other equipment not customarily handled by a teacher.
47. Helps with teachers' registers, attendance reports, and similar routine matters of pupil accounting.
48. Aids administrators with teacher assignments and classification of schools.
49. Sets up after-school or Saturday-morning workshops in which teachers can practice and learn teaching techniques in various fields.
50. Tries to keep teachers supplied with up-to-date materials.
51. Takes responsibility in preparing radio and television programs interpreting the work of the schools.
52. Participates in Parent-Teacher Association work.
53. Helps in arranging county or local school festivals and field days.
54. Works with other supervisors and administrators in co-ordinating the entire program.

55. Spends a limited portion of the week in the office, handling routine, conferring with teachers who come in, etc.
56. Works to secure proper classroom equipment and classroom attractiveness.
57. Works to secure attractive school grounds.
58. Speaks before institutes.
59. Helps teachers to organize for the study of instructional matters.
60. Encourages faculty surveys of pupil problems.
61. Helps in the teacher preparation of a handbook for beginning teachers.
62. Contributes to a case study with a group of teachers.
63. Explains and introduces teaching guides to new teachers and new guides to all teachers.
64. Establishes the proper use of textbooks newly adopted by the state or the local district.
65. Makes surveys of the use of books or other instructional materials in a school or school system.
66. Helps build proper working relationships within a school.
67. Makes surveys of teacher opinion on a matter of common interest.
68. Acts as a friend to the teacher in such matters as securing teaching certificates.
69. Makes surveys of the condition of or need for instructional materials or equipment in the schools.
70. Advises teachers in handling homerooms, clubs, and other extra-class activities.
71. Prepares directions for the use of supplies.
72. Interprets results of the standardized testing program.
73. Advises relative to plans for a new school building.
74. Assists in the transfer of teachers.
75. Advises principal and superintendent relative to conditions in the schools; reports on such a matter as the effectiveness of the instructional effort in a particular classroom.
76. Reviews recent educational literature.
77. Passes on to teachers knowledge of teaching trends.
78. Prepares news articles for the local press.
79. Serves on committees of professional organizations.
80. Works with teachers in co-ordinating the work in their various subjects.
81. Prepares notices and announcements.
82. Aids in accreditation of schools.
83. Helps lay groups make surveys of the needs of the schools.
84. Assists in forming policies.
85. Handles a class to enable the teacher to make a needed visit to another classroom.
86. Aids in co-ordinating the county school program with the state program.
87. Helps with pupils.

88. Interprets regulations.
89. Addresses parent and community groups.
90. Assists in health examinations.
91. Helps teachers deepen insights about their pupils through child-study programs.

A group of 35 supervisors, when asked how their working time was distributed among the various duties of the job, gave this response:

<i>Supervisory activity</i>	<i>Time distribution</i>
Working with teachers	45%
Gathering materials	10
Demonstration teaching	5
Holding or attending conferences	11
Research or planning activities	14
Working with related agencies	9
Total—	94%

Among the other activities mentioned were clerical work, handling films, handling textbooks, purchase and supervision of distribution of supplies, testing and evaluation, school radio programs, and working with Parent-Teacher Associations.⁸ Although the group was not large enough to be statistically significant, the response bears close relationship to the services commonly attributed to county supervisors.

THE INITIATION OF SUPERVISORY SERVICES

Each year in a number of school districts, supervisory services are established for the first time. The introduction of a supervisor into a school unaccustomed to such a staff member calls for special consideration. The treatment that follows represents the best thinking on the subject by a conference of Texas school people engaged in various positions of supervisory leadership.⁹

The getting-acquainted period. In initiating a program of supervision in a city or county in which there has been no special position,

⁸ State of Texas, *Practices of Promise in Supervision in the Schools of Texas* (Austin: Texas Education Agency, 1950), p. 7.

⁹ The material in this section was developed in a summer work-conference in Texas. It first appeared in this report—Texas State Department of Education, *Work-Conference on Educational Leadership and Supervision* (Austin: the Department, 1949), pp. 43-48. The author has edited the material and extended certain points for clarification.

the first task of the new supervisor is to become acquainted. Before he can function successfully as a helping or resource person, it is desirable that he establish friendly relations and a sense of understanding between himself and the superintendent, the principals, and the teachers. If the new position serves a number of school districts, then there is the urgency of establishing oneself with the various school offices.

Often the new position is established, or the new supervisor assigned, just prior to the opening of the school year. It is indeed frustrating at times for the county supervisor to make all of these contacts in the short space of time represented in the organization-for-opening period. Realization that getting acquainted cannot be done over night, but may take considerable time, will prevent any premature efforts that might result in failure or prove utterly futile. It is a good idea to take time to be sure that the first projects undertaken are of interest to all concerned.

How to implement this getting-acquainted program should be carefully planned by the supervisor and superintendent, with the initiative coming from the latter as administrative head of the school unit. Basic to good relationships with county or district superintendents is recognition of the fact that the supervisor has no executive authority.

After exploration in the direction of personnel acquaintance, the first real professional duty of the supervisor will be to learn and understand the superintendent and his policies. Both should have a common concept of supervision. There is a point at which the supervisor's concept of supervision as guidance and not evaluation of teachers may be threatened. If the superintendent does not hold this concept, the supervisor may have to make a decision as to how far he is willing to compromise with his devotion to his own concept. At the outset this will be a challenge to the tact and diplomacy—essential elements—in the supervisor's personality.

As soon as possible, the new supervisor needs to understand such local matters as the scope of the principalship, the interrelation of the superintendent and his staff, the position of the board of education, and the policies dealing with the purchase of supplies and equipment. In other words, the working machinery of the school system must be understood if a new program of supervision is to find its proper footing.

Becoming acquainted with the principals and their problems will involve more specific things. The supervisor will bear in mind always that his role is that of a helper to principals and teachers. The position does not need an administrative function to achieve this standing. The establishment of friendly relations at this point is much more important than any method of procedure that he may have in mind, no matter how good that method may be.

A friendly, personal interest in teachers on a nonprofessional basis has proved to be a most successful approach to teacher acquaintance. If a supervisor can win the teachers' respect and confidence, any professional guidance that they may later seek will be more effective. Confidence and understanding are preceded by friendship and respect for the person with whom one works.

The supervisor studies the teacher rolls of each school. The ability to relate the name of a school and a grade is good preparation before meeting the teacher. In meeting teachers for the first time, it is well to remember some item about each, such as hobbies, talents, or family information.

As indicated previously, there is no substitute for an early meeting with each superintendent with whom the supervisor will serve. It is essential to become acquainted as soon as possible with the superintendent's school policies, general educational principles, and concept of supervision. A picnic, tea, or other informal meeting with superintendents and principals, on a purely social basis, is a good plan for getting acquainted.

At general teachers' meetings, at which the usual procedure is followed, the supervisor is present as one of the group. The first introduction may be as a new member of the staff, whose function is that of a resource person who will be available to help with instructional improvement. The teachers and principals are told that they will have a part in deciding how the supervisor shall use his time and that they should always feel free to call upon the supervisor as they need help. The supervisor should avoid making an "educational speech" at this point. He may acknowledge the introduction as briefly as possible with the aim of establishing himself as a friendly, approachable member of the group. His ability to carry out the job will be recognized later.

The supervisor builds his own knowledge. The supervisor should be alert in improving his knowledge of the community and schools

which he serves. He determines insofar as possible the ideas that others have about supervision. He becomes acquainted with the facilities of the community, available or already in use. In this, he thinks in terms of such things as libraries, documentary materials, audio-visual aids, resource people, field trips, surveys, extended field study, camping, service projects, and work experience.

He should study the community with special consideration of his professional place in it. This knowledge encompasses the natural environment, the community's past, the people, the occupations, civic affairs, family life, educational opportunities, religious services, and recreational opportunities. He notes governmental, commercial, and private agencies. By exchanging ideas and sharing experiences he broadens his background and sinks his feet into the soil. He will continue to build his knowledge and to establish an effectiveness by such activities as these:

- Has frequent conferences with the superintendent.

- Meets with consultants and other supervisors.

- Forms opinions about the needs of the schools, by visiting classes and discussing instructional matters with teachers, administrators, and patrons.

- Determines extent of democratic tendencies in both administration and teaching.

- Finds out about health conditions, safety practices, and sanitation.

- Continually adds to stock of teaching techniques.

- Studies child growth and development materials, testing programs, and the like.

- Continually adds to supervision library, reads professional magazines, and attends professional meetings.

Teacher readiness. No supervisor who is wise as well as new to a job will begin by sorting teachers in his own mind as promising and unpromising. A sound supervisory principle to follow is the acceptance of the teachers on their level of development. Furthermore, he must really believe that supervisory services will be helpful only when accepted by the teachers.

Most new county supervisors must work among many small schools. In many instances teachers will hold emergency credentials, implying shortages in training. In such instances it is well for the supervisor to keep in mind that "teacher education" and "supervi-

sion" are almost synonymous, and similarly that good principles of teaching are the same for teachers as for pupils.

Early in the year the supervisor in a new program should explain to teachers what the possible services are, and how they may be available to all teachers. If clearly and tactfully done, this will tend to encourage the invitation of such help. It is highly important that the teachers feel that it is their program, and that the chief function of supervision is to help them plan and carry out their own program of professional development. They should eventually see the supervisor as a resource person who is ready and anxious to assist in this by working with teachers individually and collectively.

Concerning teacher readiness, the supervisor will recognize the fact that some teachers may not want supervision. They may have a poor conception of it. They may not see its possible values. They may hold back, to be shown. One way to look at this—which is not exactly rationalization—is that a supervisor cannot get to all teachers anyway, and that the program should begin by spending more time working with those who desire help.

It can be anticipated that other teachers will want help as they observe the accomplishments elsewhere. No teacher should ever be left out of the supervisor's thinking. Efforts should be made to make himself more available and his service more desirable to those who seem hesitant about asking for help.

Increasing public understanding. When new staff positions have been added to a school system, it is well that the public should be informed. Even if the position of supervisor has been supplied at the county level or financed at the state level, its significance should be established with the local patrons and civic leaders. This understanding of supervisory functions can be furthered by taking the story directly to the citizens who attend luncheon and other civic clubs. Such talks can be handled by the supervisor or some other school official.

The parents' understanding of supervision can be increased through the Parent-Teacher Association meetings, school open houses, and similar public gatherings at the school. Here again the introduction of the supervisor, and a limited statement of the benefit children receive from the program, are appropriate. Some school systems use the radio and television very effectively in carrying the school story into the homes. Smaller cities and rural areas can be

introduced to a new supervisor or a new supervisory service through the columns of the newspaper.

Needless to say, the supervisor's presence and work at meetings, county and school, will increase understanding. However, any supervisor deserves a private life of his own, and the out-of-school demands upon his time should be held within reason. In the end, the public understanding of the good work of supervision will increase through statements of teachers, students, and others who have felt its benefits.

The Texas study of the establishment of supervisory services, which has just been described, closes with this suggestion: The best supervisor is a person who is willing to help where help is needed. He never intrudes or demonstrates power or authority. He respects his fellow-man's position at all times.

THE NEW SUPERVISOR

"My first contact with the teachers was in a three-hour county meeting held four days prior to the opening of schools. The principals had helped the county superintendent choose the supervisor, but the purpose of my work was not clear to many of the classroom teachers. Because I knew this to be true, I planned a very short talk explaining the purpose of supervision as I had learned to understand it during my preparation for supervision." So reads the account of a Georgia supervisor, new to the work and to a county in which the teachers had not been accustomed to supervision.¹⁰ She goes on to explain that in this introductory talk she described briefly four of her ideas:

1. Supervision is not checking on teachers, sitting in classrooms observing, and then offering criticism.
2. It is planning with teachers, helping them to set their own goals, and helping them to plan ways to meet them.
3. The teachers and supervisor should work together to increase their understanding of children and promote the best development possible for them.
4. Supervisory service will not be compulsory, but it will be available to all teachers.

This beginner staked her success on good working relationships. She told herself that this meant understanding the individuals in the

¹⁰ Mary Ellen Perkins, "Georgia Supervisors at Work," *School Life* (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education, April, 1948).

group, and having them understand her. She set out to know each teacher, to try to learn how far he had advanced toward his goals, and to help if possible. Several smaller group meetings were held during the early part of the school year, and the supervisor reiterated the points made at the county meeting. Then she planned with individual teachers ways that she might assist in their work and when. Many of the first requests made upon her time had to do with individual teaching problems.

Through these discussions in the fall meetings, teachers asked for songs, poems, stories, and games. The supervisor's entry into many classrooms was in response to a request to teach some songs or poems, or to demonstrate story telling. Other requests were for materials, such as library books and wrapping paper for reading charts. Looking back over the first year's experience, this supervisor found that the following were the kinds of activities in which she had engaged most often, in establishing her position as one of instructional significance to the schools of the county:

1. Helping to select books to meet children's needs.
2. Exchanging books between schools when not enough were available from other sources.
3. Giving talks at Parent-Teacher meetings.
4. Helping teachers use the slide and motion picture projectors.
5. Helping the county nurse examine children.
6. Helping teachers inform parents of children's needs.
7. Helping to initiate choral reading in school.
8. Helping to develop science centers.
9. Helping teachers and children write experience stories.
10. Helping teachers conduct children's excursions.
11. Helping teachers give reading tests and interpreting the results.
12. Helping teachers secure the kind of help needed by exceptional children: the crippled, hard of hearing, the ones with poor vision, the emotionally ill, the mentally retarded, and the gifted.

THE CHALLENGE TO THE SUPERVISOR

No two supervisors establish themselves in exactly the same manner. However, if their acceptance has anything in common, perhaps it is these two things—first, the establishment of a common feeling of understanding, based on good human relationships, and second, the establishment among the teachers of the feeling that the new supervisor has something to offer.

A teacher, a supervisor, or an administrator can look back at new

positions that he entered. He can determine the degree of success in each situation and just about what he contributed to bring it about. Any person in a new group situation spends a period of time in which he is being sized up—or measured for the job. A teacher goes through it with each new class. A superintendent goes through it. A supervisor with new groups faces the same thing.

In administration and supervision, entering new positions or new groups calls for good timing. There are no substitutes for listening, finding out, sizing up new situations, learning how the others work, finding out what is expected, and determining how a predecessor operated. However, the administrator or supervisor in the new situation cannot remain on the receiving end for long. He is being judged. Things are expected of him, depending upon the conditions of the setting. He must possess the sense of timing that tells him when to move ahead, how much of a program to undertake, and how much of the responsibility to shoulder himself. He stands for progress—within the realms of reason and possibility.

These are matters that cannot be passed on in formulas or principles. They are the matters that make and break school personnel in supervisory capacities. Much can be learned by watching others in somewhat similar situations, in thinking back to those supervisory officials whom we admired. Lessons can likewise be learned from remembering the others. One thing is certain, the supervisor must establish himself first as a person, and second as a supervisor. To rush in with a program to be established immediately is folly. It is well for a supervisor to enter a new position with the realization that the ones with whom he is going to work have gotten along without his service for a long time. They are going to size him up first as a human being, and later as a supervisor. There is no substitute for good human relationships and personal respect.

It is an unwritten law in American school operation that the supervisor shall always report to the principal's office before making visitations in the building. This may be traced back to the line-and-staff principle of relationships, but it is generally accepted today as nothing more nor less than common courtesy. It is in keeping with the constructive relationships between these two offices.

In the end the supervisor is expected to produce. He can go around co-operating, being democratic, and accepting teachers, but that is nothing in itself. He can spend a lot of time going in and out

of classrooms and in setting up committees. But all this is nothing in itself. His effort must not be aimless. It must be soundly directed if it is to be effective.

For Further Consideration

Is it necessary that the supervisor be a skillful teacher in the instructional field in which he works? Are certification standards for supervisors in keeping with the ideals held for the position? To what extent should administration determine the limits of the activity of a supervisory staff? If there is a lack of readiness for help on the part of a teacher, should the busy supervisor concentrate attention elsewhere? How can supervisory leadership evaluate its own accomplishments?

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10

The Principal as Professional Leader

THE principal of the school holds the key position in the program of instructional improvement. There has never been any attempt to pull him off that throne. In school operation the position was the first to be added to the original teaching assignment. Special positions of supervision and staff service came in to supplement his efforts, not to replace them, and to this day such staff workers still encourage the principal to take the supervisory lead.

A STRATEGIC POSITION

The theory of supervision has always reserved for the principal the position that the title denotes. His has remained the line position of authority over the child's instruction as well as responsibility for it. With the continuous addition of staff positions to the school system, the principalship has still retained the final right to say who is and who is not a successful teacher. Such a divine right certainly implies a keen knowledge of instruction and an equally keen desire to improve it.

In the instructional scheme of things the principal is in a unique position. He is in the strategic center of a web of instructional interrelationships—teacher-pupil, teacher-teacher, teacher-supervisor, teacher-parent, and teacher-superintendent. His is the dispatching station, at the center of educational endeavor—planning, operating, and evaluating.

Of all the school personnel, he is in the best position to get the over-all public reaction to the school effort. He is in a position to match parental evaluation with teacher purpose, and to match public

purpose and expectation with school practice and accomplishment. He is in a position to study the over-all effectiveness of the school program upon the student body. The supervisor who comes into the school from the outside seldom sees the parent. Likewise, the supervisor's contacts with teachers are infrequent. The principal is the constant factor in a school's leadership picture, and the continuity of observation of instructional effort is within his schedule possibilities.

He can make or break the work of a supervisor, or a city-wide or state-wide curriculum program. His indifference to such instructional effort, or a few derogatory remarks well placed, can act as a hands-off directive to the teachers in his own school. From the beginning he holds status because of his position. Every principal exerts great influence upon instruction—for good or evil—even though the first-grader may classify the principal as only the person to apply Band-Aids to cuts and bruises.

To elevate the position to this high place of instructional leadership does not mean that all who hold the post deserve the glory. The post holds the possibilities; to achieve them depends upon the occupant. For instance, it is still not revealed to what degree the special positions of supervisory leadership were added because of insufficient administrative personnel and to what degree because of insufficiencies within the personnel itself. Too often the administrative tasks in school operation loom so large, they block off the principal's view of the instructional field. In such case his view of teaching is often only the view from his office door.

Inefficiency in school administration carries its own death warrant. But negligence in the improvement of instruction can go on indefinitely without being detected by the supporting society. This is true mainly because the layman can detect inefficiency in management when he isn't well enough versed in the science of pedagogy to detect it in curriculum provision. It is also partly due to the older citizen's inclination to rationalize his own child's school program by conjuring up in his imagination a roseate conception of the school program to which he was subjected when a child. As an adult, one wonders if his mother's pies and Sunday chicken dinners were actually as far above his present fare as his memory would lead him to believe.

THE DISTRIBUTION OF TIME AND EFFORT

In our eagerness to cast the principal in the highest professional role possible in the school play, it is well to be realistic about the load that he carries—the responsibilities that compete for his time and effort. For instance, in Montgomery County, Maryland, these are among his duties as listed in the *Administrative Handbook*:

The principal is in direct control of his school. With his teachers he formulates the program and is directly responsible for its supervision.

In administering his school the principal endeavors to provide conditions favorable to instruction by the teachers. These include regulations for passing of classes; length and time of intermissions; assignment of general rooms for use; scheduling classes; arranging time for assemblies, fire drills, health inspections, and conferences with parents.

He directs the work of the custodian and inspects the building for sanitation, heating, lighting, safety, and general appearance. He approves promotions and report cards; confers with parents, teachers, children, and supervisors; conducts staff meetings and administers the instructional program of the schools.

He assigns teacher duties within the building and organizes and adjusts teaching loads. He orders supplies, teaching materials and equipment, and distributes these. He promotes community relations and approves requests for the use of the building for meetings of outside organizations. He is responsible for the discipline and conduct of the school.¹

In defining his position, it is well to remember that he is much more than a supervisor. The possibilities of his leadership are broad, but even in the instructional area he works within the limits of state, county, and local district prescription. It is apparent that the exact distribution of time and effort is bound to vary with the personnel holding the position.

There has been a tendency in American education to glorify supervision as the improvement of instruction, and to classify administration as some baser activity having to do with the management of the school. Perhaps it was a case of seeing the supervisory activity as closer to the child, and consequently more noble.

Principals in a sense make some such distinction in their own minds as they go about the work of a school day, a school month, or a school year. At least, some such distinction is hinted by those who lament that the routine duties of managing a fair-sized school unit

¹ Montgomery County, Maryland, *Administrative Handbook* (September, 1951), p. 5.

keeps them from spending the time that they would like to spend in the classrooms. There is many an apology uttered each school year for not having had time "to supervise."

Whether the principal has time for supervision depends somewhat upon the conception that one holds of the service. If supervision were considered only as helping teachers in their classrooms, then most principals wouldn't have time because of their own teaching responsibilities. But fortunately for the principalship, the modern conception of supervision is one of broad professional leadership. *It represents the total influence that the principal exerts upon his school for a good instructional program.* However, in following this theoretical directive, some principals run the danger of rationalizing themselves away from classroom supervision and into nothing else to take its place.

In those cases where teaching duties limit classroom visitation, other advantages help to compensate the principal for this privation. The principal who teaches is in a small school with a few teachers. The close personal and professional relationship of the staff in this situation as an asset to instructional leadership offsets the difficulty of getting into classrooms. Even here, the principal's ingenuity enables him to accept the teacher's invitation to visit.

The elementary school. In those elementary schools where principals are freed of instructional duties, direct classroom supervision has been commonly established. It is common for an elementary school principal, in a city such as San Francisco, to spend from a third to a half of his school day in the classrooms or working with instructional enrichment. It seems to have been a commonly accepted pattern of the job, carried down from early in this century.

The high school. The high school situation has been somewhat different. As a group, high school principals have not achieved a reputation for instructional leadership. They have hung up an excellent record in school management, but are generally reputed to have neglected instructional improvement. They have tended to place faith in the individualized efforts of classroom teachers rather than to work at a well-co-ordinated instructional program that would require each teacher's methods to be judged against this over-all pattern. They have accepted the school as made up of a miscellaneous assortment of subject fields and as running in that manner.

Unlike its sister, the elementary school, the larger American high school has been staffed in recent years with a core of assistants to the principal, to handle types of duties ranging from attendance taking and class scheduling to activities directing and pupil counseling and disciplining. Consequently, it would seem that the principalship has been freed more and more for the general supervision of the school and the direction of the instructional program, which after all is the heart of the school. However, at times this creation of assistants to free the principal for teacher help has paradoxically resulted in more office machinery for him to supervise.

A modern approach. Today's principal is not willing to leave instructional problems to chance or entirely to outside specialists. He realizes the close relationship of each classroom to the larger instructional pattern of his school, and uses his ability and experience to interpret that relationship to others, and to effect such unity. He senses the dangers of these two extremes of administration: (1) assuming all the responsibility for curriculum, as the one to make all the decisions, and (2) permitting the teachers all to go their merry way in doing what they please with their instructional programs. He gives leadership in instructional matters, commanding respect for his understanding of the curriculum. The nonteaching principal who is interested in instructional improvement can spend a third of his time in the classrooms, drawn there by interest rather than being forced there by duty.

An academic see-saw that commonly invokes lengthy arguments in graduate courses in supervision is the question, "Should the principal be expected to supervise the subjects in which he has had no particular training?" Instructional leadership is something much broader and deeper than a knowledge of subject matter in the various high school studies. It involves among other things a knowledge of high school youth and how they learn. It calls first for a sound understanding of good and bad methods of instruction, a knowledge that transcends the technicalities of the various subjects. The strong right arm of good instructional supervision is this ability to diagnose classroom effectiveness through the application of a knowledge of instructional methods and of children. The one doing the supervising can see the work of an individual classroom in relation to the total instructional effort of the school or the school system.

CURRICULUM ASSISTANT

Large high schools are well staffed today with guidance workers, counselors, and deans; but only a relatively small percentage of such schools have introduced curriculum assistants to help the principal with his instructional leadership. Deans, counselors, and other guidance workers deal with the adjustment of pupils, not the adjustment of instruction or curriculum. The wide provision of such services with the skimpy provision of curriculum assistance implies the school's acceptance of the present curriculum and the pupil's adjustment to that program.

Nobody has ever determined the size the high school should reach before the principal receives assistance in his office. But it has long since been determined—as attested to by common practice—that such assistance should first be in handling the student personnel problems. One or more teachers are relieved of a portion of their teaching schedule to act as counselors, or as deans. In no case has it been shown that the first assistant to be appointed to the principal's office is one to improve instruction or curriculum.

A good case could be made for the thesis that the maladjusted pupil reflects an inadequate curriculum and that all the guidance workers in all the high schools of America together cannot offset one poor instructional program. In recent years a few schools have recognized that the principal needs assistance in instructional matters just as much as in matters of pupil personnel. This is shown by the creation of positions known as curriculum assistant or something similar.

Nature of position. It is to be recalled that three decades ago or so the deanship or the assistant principalship in the high school was inaugurated as a part-time position. The teacher was relieved of two or three classes to help in the office. And so recently the instructional assistantship has emerged in some schools. The teacher is relieved from two or three classes to help improve the curriculum. At times this represents a replacement of the department headship. In other cases it is an additional position.

A modest gesture in this direction is the provision of two half-time positions in a school of a thousand or so students. The curriculum assistant does the things that a principal is doing, or might be

expected to do, in furthering instructional improvement. These include: arranging for teachers to observe instruction in other schools or in other classrooms within their own school, preparing teachers for such observation, leading committee work in the field of curriculum, supervising classroom instruction, conducting experimentation in teaching, and consulting with individual teachers relative to teaching matters.

This trend, as slight as it is, promises much for the future of high school instruction. It is suggested that such positions if properly conceived by the administration could very well replace the department headship. They are founded on broader instructional principles. They promise a correlation of instruction that can never be achieved by the system of leadership that glorifies separate subject departments.

However, it would be professional folly to establish such a system against the will of a staff accustomed to departmentalized leadership. The responsibilities of existing departmental leaders might very well be extended to achieve in time this broader system of leadership. Before such positions are established, it must be determined if this responsibility for instruction should be relinquished by the principalship.

Some large schools already provide one or more full-time instructional assistants for the principal. For instance, these are curriculum fields much broader than subject fields: (1) general education, (2) the arts, and (3) occupational education. Conceiving that each child has a right to a well-balanced program including all three of these, then it might well follow that personnel to advance each would represent good curriculum planning.

The creation of curriculum assistants need not rob the principal of his leadership function. If it did, the practice would be of dubious value. It is much more common in a large system, city or county, to establish curriculum positions in the central office rather than in the schools. But it is as sensible to attach to a large high school staff personnel in this area as it is to provide personnel to handle the pupil's guidance. It can be said that guidance is ineffective in an educational institution unless there is a proper place to which each pupil can go for educational nourishment. A guidance worker must be able to offer more than sympathy.

THE DEPARTMENT HEAD

What will eventually happen to the department headship with the emergence of curriculum assistants is difficult to predict. It would seem that logically the old system would eventually be replaced by the new. In the change over, the good work now being done by department heads will be taken over by the curriculum assistant. The services of the typical department head are classified here into five groups. The outline that follows is set up as questions to aid such personnel to check their efforts.

1. *He assists teachers in making full use of materials.*

- Are teachers securing the benefits of all teaching guides?
- Are they making proper interpretation of such guides?
- Are they making use of available supplementary reference books?
- Are they making full use of bulletin boards and maps?
- Are they making full use of audio-visual materials available?
- Have they seen the possibilities of field trips?
- Has the most effective assignment of rooms, books, equipment, and supplies been made for them?

2. *He gives teachers suggestions about classroom methods.*

- Has he secured for them recently issued references on methods of teaching in that field?
- Has he encouraged experimentation in methods, when the teacher has more than one section of the same subject?
- Have teachers exchanged ideas on classroom techniques, and do they have the opportunity to visit each other's classes?
- Are such matters treated at departmental meetings?

3. *He leads the way in testing.*

- Have the tests and testing methods of the teacher been discussed with the department head?
- Have model or various types of tests been circulated among department members?
- Have the relative merits of different types of tests been measured in respect to the subject field?
- Has he encouraged maximum use of the results of the standardized achievement and mental maturity testing programs that are given in the school?
- Has he revealed the many uses of tests over and beyond the marking of pupils?
- Has he recognized the limitation of standardized tests in evaluating teaching and learning?

4. *He leads the way in adapting instruction to individual differences.*

Has he helped to reveal the degree and types of variation among pupils?

Has he revealed possible ways of caring for differences in abilities and interests?

Are the teachers taking advantage of the possibility of making adjustments for pupils through the guidance service?

Do they work at the job of helping the pupils establish desirable ways of approaching and carrying out study?

5. *He acts as a leader in professional growth.*

Are the new teachers aware of the importance of participating in extra-curricular activities?

Do they need help in distinguishing the ethical or professional action in school and community situations?

Are the new teachers being shown examples of good teaching?

Do they see their work in true relationship to the entire educational program?

RELATING ADMINISTRATIVE ROUTINES TO INSTRUCTION

As has been discussed in the early chapters, there is little cause for quibbling over boundary lines in a principal's work schedule, or over the distribution of his time. As professional leader he finds an interrelationship of activities that defy classification. Who is to say that the things that are carried out in his office are not potentials for either the protection of the child's learning situation or the improvement of it?

If, in his eagerness to get into a classroom to help a teacher, he abruptly terminates an office conference with a parent, isn't there the possibility that the education of the child in question may suffer? There is even the possibility of the classroom endeavor of other children suffering if the case of one child is not properly handled.

When harried by the administrative routine of his job, the principal needs to do all that he can to relate each act to the classroom. The relationships are there; the recognition of them is dependent upon our devotion to instructional improvement. Many a principal with an inquiring mind has been convinced of shortcomings in the school curriculum through dealing with so-called problem children sent to his office.

The stimulation for instructional improvement comes from varied sources: the office conference, the classroom observation of good teaching, the visit to a classroom that is educationally inadequate,

or the beginning teacher's request for this or that. The process of supervision is best carried out when it is thus well fed.

A high school principal's day. The conscientious principal is apt to ask himself from time to time, Is this supervision? For instance, the account of one principal's day in his office has been presented under just such a title. The resume of his activities follows:

- 7:30—Miss L. brought in an article from the *St. Louis Star Times* deploring the neglect of brilliant students in the schools.
- 7:45—Mr. H., head of the social studies department, discussed plans for a series of general teachers' meetings.
- 8:00—Mr. P., assistant principal—about the suspension of two students.
- 8:10—Mr. G. requests the assignment of Room X next term.
- 8:20—Reviewed a report of an evaluation sub-committee which had been handed in late the day before.
- 8:30—Wrote Miss L. a note deciding against the general distribution of the article.
- 9:00—Received and reviewed another evaluation sub-committee report.
- 9:15—Mail arrived.
- 9:50—Conference with librarian relative to remodeling library.
- 10:10—Discussed with a student the possibilities of granting him a diploma.
- 10:20—Met with English teachers concerning some instructional plans.
- 11:20—Lunch.
- 11:50—Candidate for a position arrived.
- 1:30—Conference with head of guidance relative to graduation requirements.
- 2:15—Conference with head of English department as follow-up on morning meeting.
- 3:50—Textbook company representative discussed new physics text.
- 4:20—Talked with secretary about the case of a recommendation for college entrance.²

Many of the miscellaneous conferences that a principal holds in his office have instructional connections. However, if such manipulation represents his major attempt to lead instruction, his efforts will lack plan and purpose. His office should co-ordinate the work of the staff in a unified effort that represents a planned program of instructional improvement. Otherwise, his miscellaneous jobs here and there will represent little more than instructional trouble-shoot-

² R. D. Shouse, "Is This Supervision?" *The Clearing House*, 24.9 (May, 1950), pp. 530-533.

ing. He must beware of posing as an instructional doctor to whom the teachers run with all their individual ills. Instead, he generates a co-operative improvement program, part of which is preventive in nature and part of which is corrective.

For instance, the principal should help the staff to keep informed with respect to significant research in instruction. Out of this will come natural alterations in practice. Preventive instructional leadership on his part implies a broad program of action. Corrective instructional leadership is limited to caring for the individual teacher's problems as recognized by the teachers themselves.

THE LEADERSHIP APPROACH

Here we are concerned especially with the initiative of the principal in the instructional field—with the force exerted by the principal for instructional improvement. This does not mean that all such action is limited to his office. Rather, it means that all such action is a possibility of that office. This discussion of responsibilities must be predicated on a recognition of the great variation in the position, and the conditions surrounding it, from school to school. Here we shall lay down a coast-to-coast cross section cut through such practice. It is left to the reader to build his own spur track from this main line to his individual school situation.

There are two concerns of equal importance to the principal who seeks a good instructional program, (1) the environmental conditions that are conducive to continual school improvement, and (2) the program of activities undertaken within this atmosphere in order to assure this improvement.

The environmental conditions. The principal's leadership is reflected in the working atmosphere of the school just as surely as it is in the supervisory activities. In fact, an unwholesome atmosphere is evidence that the supervisory program may be forced and ineffective. The following conditions are found in schools where faculties are working effectively toward better practices.

1. Lines of communication are open. The principal is available to the staff. A teacher doesn't have to wait until the principal is in the proper mood to be approached, because he is always the same person. He is accessible to everyone, but is not unduly influenced.

Teachers bring their concerns and plans to him just as he brings things to them.

2. Matters of concern are approached with a wide exchange of views and the common knowledge of all. Committees are not selected just to serve the principal's point of view. Frequent progress reports are made to keep the staff informed and to enable them to make contributions.

3. There is full recognition of the importance of everyone, with a full use of faculty resources. All this effort is judged in terms of the welfare of the child.

4. There is no feeling of uncertainty among the staff. There are no surprise announcements of changes, no secret inner councils making decisions. The decisions affecting instruction are arrived at through maximum participation, with time taken to ferret out the facts.

5. Appreciation is shown for accomplishment and contributions, and credit is freely given. The principal is not stingy with or neglectful in his praise. He gives it not as though the thing was done for him, but as the representative of the school.

6. Teachers as well as the principal are highly ethical and professional in their attitudes and actions. The school is free from petty bickerings and selfish endeavor, as the full energy and co-operation of all are released.

7. The principal reveals self-confidence in his position without reaching egotism. He does not straddle the fence on issues in an attempt to ingratiate everyone. He casts his lot and doesn't expect "to be right" all the time. He has the courage of his convictions. He is basically serious minded but reveals good humor as well as deep human understanding. He balances vision with practicability, as he sets a pattern both in endeavor and in patience. He does not work as though he were afraid of losing his job.

8. There is a wholesome atmosphere in the school, reflecting an appreciation of the importance of the undertaking but at the same time a friendliness that outlaws tensions. This cordial relationship enables everyone—teachers, children, and principal—to be natural. The staff members have something in common besides their work, finding pleasure in each other's company as they meet together. The school is in high action, yet at ease.

In recent years, there has been expressed on both the lecture platform and the printed page the fear that the principal or supervisor is handicapped in achieving democratic rapport with teachers because he is a status leader; that is, because he is elected to his position by an authority other than that in existence within the group with which he works.³ This thought reflects the searching examination to which some have subjected the group process of late, the tendency to make of it a highly technical science. The important aspect of the leader's position with the group is not how he came into it, assuming that it was a legitimate entry; the important thing is how he conducts himself once he is there. Teachers need to work in an atmosphere of trust and understanding.

The principal's program. Taken as a whole, the principal's efforts in assuring the continuous advancement of his school in instructional matters can hardly be called a program. Many of these suggest the careful group planning and organization that are usually attributed to a program. But many of the steps he takes in this direction represent the separate acts which he carries out in handling the routine management of the school. It is the professional turn that he gives these duties which marks them as instructional advancement.

The placement of teachers. For instance, the placement of teachers seems a simple thing in itself, but the principal's point of view in handling such routine can make the difference between good and poor instruction. The high school leader places teachers according to their ability rather than in the interest of the ease in schedule making. It is a case of matching teacher competence with the job to be done. In the elementary field, the broad certification of a teacher should not be misleading. The legal right to teach anywhere from kindergarten through eighth grade does not carry the instructional right to do so. The principal carries the responsibility to adjust the teacher to serve the maximum benefit to the child.

The effective placement of a beginning teacher is always an instructional challenge to the principal. He knows what not to do. He does not let the experienced teachers choose the more desirable assignments, thus leaving for the last in, the least experienced, the more difficult assignment. He realizes that the beginner deserves the right to feel success in the job the first year. If possible, he even

³ Texas Education Agency, State Council on Teacher Education, etc., *Work Conference on Supervision* (Austin: The State Department, 1950), p. 14.

lightens the load of the new teacher to enable her to achieve that success. This can be done readily in the secondary school by permitting the beginner to teach one fewer class than the experienced teachers. This extra period can be used by the teacher in planning and in observing the good work of other teachers.

Individual guidance. Much of the teacher's professional growth will come from additional graduate study or from in-service training activities that are outside the supervisory program of the immediate school. Even here the principal exerts his influence for the eventual advancement of his own school's program. Most teachers appreciate guidance in planning these more individual in-service activities. Often the principal can help to show the course that is most meaningful. In respect to graduate research requirements, he can encourage studies that may have their setting in the local school, studies which can in turn give back something of value to the school.

Making out class schedules, the placement of teachers, and numerous other things which come around in routine fashion bear heavy implications for instruction. They cannot be taken lightly. It is in such areas of school management that the principal has opportunities for supervisory leadership that are much less apt to come to the supervisor.

Concentration upon instruction. The principal does not confine his influence upon instruction to the more routine matters of teacher placement and guidance. As is the case in most programs of instructional improvement, he centers group attention upon the curriculum. Helping the faculty to see realistically their present program and procedures is as important as the group effort to make improvements. Evaluation of present instruction and experimental procedures is included.

Faculty meetings become the clearing house for instructional procedures. Instructional developments are germinated and evaluations of effort are reported there. Committees that work at the miscellaneous projects undertaken present their progress reports before the entire group. Cases for this or that are presented for discussion. The faculty meeting is the principal's strategic co-ordination center. His meetings are democratically planned and carried out. The principal neither takes a back seat nor does he monopolize the speaker's stand. His influence is felt, but the meetings represent maximum participation.

Helping the individual teacher. Principals as a group feel that their most effective supervisory service is the help that they give the individual teacher with his instructional problems. This is interesting because the theory of supervision today leans so heavily toward the group activities as the approach to the in-service development of teachers. The Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association recently made an extensive survey of the supervisory activities of the nation's elementary school principals. In connection with the study each principal was asked to indicate the one supervisory activity whereby he did his most effective work. This survey, as reported in Table 4, indicates the overwhelming faith in the help given the individual teacher.

In Chapter 9 were listed almost a hundred activities that are typical of the work of supervisors. Scattered through that list are to be found the things that a principal does in supervising and improving instruction. They are quite readily discernible and need not be repeated here. His program is a continuous chain of study groups, faculty meetings, demonstrations and observations, classroom visits, conferences, surveys, evaluations, resource personnel, experimentation, instructional materials, consultants, testing and measurement, publications and teaching guides, and instructional policies. Co-operative procedures such as those already treated are followed.

PLANNING WITHIN THE SCHOOL

School systems can establish extensive system-wide programs of curriculum planning and in-service training. But the eventual success of any such venture is highly dependent upon the group attitude of the faculty in the particular school.

The faculty of a school is the most strategic social unit in any school system. It is the kernel of the entire harvest of co-operative professional endeavor. The challenge to the principal is one of releasing the professional power that is within that group. The key to this is good working relationships. They open the door to the good school program. They constitute the difference between a refreshing school and a mediocre one. The greatest problem of supervision is that of human affairs, of working together.

Commonly accepted by most principals is the theory of group leadership, which is just another way of saying that a group that thinks and acts for itself generates much more power than one that

TABLE 4

SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES WITHIN THE SCHOOL WHERE PRINCIPALS
FEEL THEY DO THEIR MOST EFFECTIVE WORK⁴

Supervisory Activity	Supervising Principals	Teaching Principals
1. By helping each teacher with her problems	63%	65%
2. By interviewing, studying, and adjusting individual pupils	18	17
3. By visiting classes to observe the teaching	4	2
4. By interviewing and planning with parents	3	6
5. By leading general discussion at teachers' meetings	4	6
6. By providing teachers with extensive instructional materials	4	6
7. By working with groups of teachers on problems of their own choosing	8	5
8. By asking individual teachers to report at teachers' meetings	1	*
9. By appointing committees of teachers to report at teachers' meetings	3	1
10. By giving tests to classes	1	1
11. By giving or arranging for demonstration lessons	1	1
12. By conducting and applying research studies	1	2
13. By asking supervisors to examine and to report on classes	*	0
14. By teaching or coaching groups of pupils	*	2
15. By giving lectures on instructional problems at teachers meetings	*	0

*Indicates items of less than 1 per cent.

merely acts from outside direction. In Chapter 6 were developed the principles of group leadership. The group process and the group undertaking as reviewed there are highly pertinent to the discussion of the principal's approach to the job. The points that follow represent an extension of the Chapter 6 treatment into the principalship. They are stated as suggestions to the principal.

1. *Refuse to have all the answers.* The principal needs to guard against being flattered into the position of the one with a monopoly on the solutions to the school's problems. It is not uncommon for teachers, out of respect for the status of the principalship, to run to that office for ready answers to their problems. For many teachers

⁴Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. *The Elementary School Principals—Today and Tomorrow*, Twenty-seventh Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1948), p. 103.

there is security in such an approach. The principal can wean a faculty away from this administrative-oracle illusion if he is sincerely interested in group leadership. But he must work at it. He can generate co-operative study and action by responding to sincere requests with such counterinquiries as these:

"What do others think about this matter?"

"Is anybody else on the faculty worrying about this?"

"Would you be willing at the next faculty meeting to ask the group what you have just asked me here?"

"I wonder what other schools are doing along this line."

The principal needs to be on the alert to turn a promising inquiry back to the group and to plant the seed of co-operative study. Many a curriculum project has found its origin in the alertness of a principal or supervisor to capitalize upon the indication of readiness afforded by the question of a single faculty member's seeking help with instruction.

2. *Work on problems that are commonly accepted as worthy.* What is vitally important to one teacher must be equally interesting to others if group study is to ensue. Appointing committees and enlisting membership against the will or better judgment of the appointees gives little promise of value from the undertaking.

3. *Start an instructional study program with a problem that promises some success.* The school that has not ordinarily worked co-operatively on curriculum development should start its first study group on a problem that will result in some satisfaction in accomplishment. This in turn stimulates further action. Failure is apt to make it more difficult to enlist enthusiasm for further study programs.

4. *Do not sacrifice instructional effectiveness for the sake of group planning.* Not everything that comes to the principal's office is a suitable subject for co-operative study or a faculty vote. Any principal gives some ready answers as he assumes the supervisory responsibilities of his position of leadership. For instance, the floundering probationary teacher cannot await the co-operative help of a faculty committee. Direct action from the principalship is likewise asked in many instructional matters during the course of a school month. The ability to distinguish clearly between those matters calling for his immediate direction and those suitable for delayed group study is the mark of leadership.

5. *Protect group undertakings against inside danger.* Many well-launched study programs have been wrecked by such common threats as wasted time, lack of study data or materials, or authoritarian members. The experienced leader comes to know such dangers and can protect the work of the group against them.

6. *Help to educate the faculty to effective group procedures.* Such principles as those listed in Chapter 6 should be recognized by teachers as well as principal as the techniques of effective group co-operation. For instance, the common respect for personalities and the common understanding of the problem being studied are two of these essentials.

7. *Give attention and help to every project undertaken.* The principal doesn't go around spawning committees all over the place and then swim away to let them flounder around alone. He undertakes only one reasonable study program at a time and gives ample personal time and attention to it.

8. *Establish teachers' meetings as professional meetings.* The principal should meet with the entire faculty at least once a month for the purpose of instructional improvement. The meetings should be democratically planned and reflect the other efforts in the school along the lines of instructional advancement.

Nothing could be more characteristically American, in the best sense of the word, than the principal's sincere attempt to see that a teacher's classroom provides a rich educational program for every child therein. Unlike the special supervisor, the principal lives in the same building with the staff he supervises. There is every opportunity for close understanding and co-operative relationship. If we become too concerned about the principal-teacher relationship, we may forget that if either of the two parties is big enough professionally for his job, he'll place the welfare of the child before his own individual feelings. The principal and the teacher reach the desired common ground of understanding and working relationship only when they are both sincerely seeking the best for the pupil.

HELPING THE INDIVIDUAL TEACHER

Not all the principal's work is with group undertakings. He gives encouragement and support to the teacher with instructional problems. This is quite different from giving the answers to those

problems. This helping relationship in education is one that has been recognized and emphasized in recent years. Jenkins is one who has studied its significance. He has explained it in the following manner:

The person who helped us might have been following such principles as these:

1. He made it clear to us that he was not taking over the problem. It was still our problem—we had the responsibility for it and we had to do our own thinking about it. Maybe we resented a little bit his not giving us an immediate solution, but he helped us to see that he couldn't solve our problem for us.

2. He indicated in many ways that we were neither stupid nor unusual because we had a problem. We didn't feel branded as failures. He accepted our problems as a matter of course.

3. He helped us see the values of working on the problem. He pointed out that it would be very much worth our while to seek the best answer, and he made us feel encouraged about it.

4. He seemed to be aware of some reasons why we were having the difficulty, but he didn't tell us what was wrong with us. He helped us to find a positive approach to the problem and to discover our own confusions in thinking.

5. He asked us valuable questions about the nature of the problem, why it occurred, and what symptoms of it were evident. He helped us to see the need of diagnosing the problem before thinking about solutions to it.

6. As we talked further, he helped us to set up some criteria for testing our ideas about solutions. We found it much easier to determine which ideas were likely to be fruitful.

Three things happened to us when we were helped in this way: (a) we were allowed to maintain our personal integrity and self-respect, (b) but we were given increased motivation to work on the problem, and (c) we were given help on methods of solving problems. We gained both a greater confidence in ourselves and an increased ability to cope with our own difficulties.⁵

Certainly this diagnosis of the personal conference has something to offer to the one who supervises teachers who are having difficulties. Naturally, there are times when the emergency calls for more direct help, but often the conference represents the opportunity to build confidence for tomorrow.

⁵David H. Jenkins, "The Helping Relationship in Education," *School of Education Bulletin* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, School of Education) 22:5 (February, 1951), pp. 65-66.

THE PRINCIPAL CHECKS HIS OWN PROCEDURES

The leadership of the principal, as reviewed in this chapter, has emphasized the ability to influence others in a democratic way. The ability to call groups together is not enough. Helping teachers to see what they are doing is not the same as telling them what they should be doing. The eager leader finds by experience that the people who have not been accustomed to assuming responsibility are not going to do so over night. Those accustomed to following directions do not accept the responsibility for the outcome.

The true school leader appreciates that there is adventure in teaching and that he should protect the teacher's right to it. The success of a teacher is dependent upon the way he feels about his work. The right to explore one's own ideas in an atmosphere of wholesome supervisory relationships is a boon to teaching. A lot is expected of the principalship, and who as principal is to know that he is reaching his true stature? Many writers have attempted to help the instructional leader to check his own procedures. Ray Simpson has developed one such self-survey.⁶ Originally written as a list of questions to be asked of himself by the principal, it has been re-worked here with Simpson's permission, into a list of preferred actions and attitudes. It is presented for the principal as a help in diagnosing his supervisory program, his strengths and weaknesses in co-operative leadership. It is to be noted that a few of his suggestions treating pupil participation in curriculum planning pertain only to the secondary-school field. Most of them are significant for either the elementary or secondary school situation.

THE PRINCIPAL—

1. Formulating Educational Philosophy and Practices

1. Enlists the help of the whole staff in formulating educational policies.
2. Actively encourages the formulation and teaching of curriculum suited to the needs of different types of learners.
3. Helps the staff set up machinery for continuous evaluation of the school program.
4. Accepts basically the attitude that collective thinking is likely to be superior in quality to individual thought.

⁶ Ray Simpson, "The Administrator and Democratic School Practice," *The American School Board Journal*, 119:5 (November, 1949), pp. 30-31.

5. Recognizes and acts upon the principle that the primary responsibility for outlining a definite curriculum rests with the staff, the students, and the administrator.

6. Recognizes and acts on the principle that changes in the curriculum are likely to be most profitable if they result from the active participation of teachers, administrators, and students.

7. Plans faculty meetings in the school co-operatively with teachers and department heads.

8. Helps teachers and pupils study individual and community needs, as a part of curriculum planning.

9. Expects to find different children in a given class working on different materials and problems at the same time, to take care of individual differences in ability and level of development.

10. Avoids pushing teachers into trying to get every child up to the grade norm which happens to correspond to the grade in which the child is located.

11. Takes some time out each week for professional improvement.

12. Keeps school plans sufficiently elastic, giving weight to the ideas of those who will be most concerned in carrying them out—the teachers and learners.

13. Without exerting too great pressure, encourages the teachers to develop child participation in assigning problems and in setting up steps for solving them.

14. Aims in school government to give students all the responsibility they are capable of handling and to let them administer the affairs of their school community, as long as their actions are in harmony with the laws and regulations of the community.

15. Works with teachers frequently in rethinking the curriculum and the courses they are in, in relation to changing learner needs.

16. Encourages both teachers and pupils to take an active part in the selection of resources to be purchased or used in the school.

17. Provides a constantly increasing professional library that is consistently used.

18. In faculty meetings, enables the staff to work continuously on problems of curriculum and policy.

II. Giving Democratic Leadership to the Staff

19. Is sensitive to the feelings and reactions of the staff and students.

20. Has a well-formulated policy of working with staff and students.

21. Is skillful in developing a good team spirit in the faculty.

22. Arrives at the point where his leadership is willingly accepted by staff and students.

23. Attempts to surround himself with strong people and seeks to develop each to his greatest capacity.

24. Is skillful in gaining and maintaining the respect of the staff and students even in situations where there are strong differences of opinion.

25. Takes specific steps to co-ordinate the activities of various mem-

bers of the staff so that each may know what the other is doing and work together as a team.

26. Is constantly attempting to help staff members to get better working conditions including enough free time for professional development.

27. Encourages teachers to help participate with their students in the selection of texts and other resources purchased either by the students or by the school.

28. Encourages teachers and students to help re-examine the report card that is being used and to revise it in the light of current needs and developments.

29. Recognizing that some teachers may have been trained to work with autocratic school administrators, helps them to work in democratic ways.

30. Acts on the principle that supervision should be set up in terms of the teacher's growth rather than in terms of subject matter.

31. Arouses interest in useful democratic living by practicing functional democracy in the school and in the community.

32. Encourages outstanding professional scholarship and development on the part of the staff.

33. In his remarks and other behavior, adequately respects the feelings and dignities of other staff members.

34. Helps teachers secure professional books for their use.

35. Helps provide current professional magazines for the teachers.

36. Helps teachers plan their schedules so that there is some time in each working day for the use of professional magazines and books.

37. Provides easy access to professional materials through a circulation system for such materials.

38. With teachers, makes periodic systematic checkups on the school's efficiency.

39. Helps to make it possible to follow up youngsters who have dropped out of school or who have been graduated.

40. Helps teachers organize a system which makes it professionally and financially worth while for them to improve professionally during the summer.

41. Enlists the support of the teaching staff in setting up standards to use in the selection of new teachers.

42. With teachers, works out a reasonable plan for taking care of duties when illness strikes someone on the staff.

43. Works with teachers in making it possible financially for them to attend and participate in professional conventions.

44. Has specific and democratically operative plans for helping teachers to keep from getting into a mental rut.

45. Bases his leadership primarily on ability and professional contributions rather than on authority.

46. Organizes his supervisory activity in such a way that there is continuous study, planning, developing, and evaluating of conditions that improve the contribution of the school to the needs of the learners.

47. Gears a key part of his activity to interpreting the school program to the community and enlisting community help in improving the school program.

48. Tries constantly to diagnose his own leadership weaknesses and attempts conscientiously to eliminate them.

49. Helps to develop competent leadership and initiative within the teaching staff.

50. Consciously attempts to give each improving member of the staff a feeling of success on the job.

51. Encourages the members of the staff co-operating with each other.

52. Avoids the temptation to get quick improvement by giving strong orders, by cracking the whip, or by getting tough.

53. Attempts to solve the problems that confront him through thinking rather than through force and emotions.

54. Weighs immediate issues in terms of what is likely to happen in the future if a particular line of action is taken.

55. Is able to encourage the teaching staff to assume major responsibilities without any fear that the staff may "get out of hand."

56. Is able to evaluate accurately the feelings and reactions of the staff and students toward him.

III. Keeping Staff Communication Channels Open

57. Keeps the staff continually informed regarding plans, responsibilities, and activities that affect them.

58. In meeting with staff or students or both, encourages and gets co-operative thinking, discussion, and frank expressions of opinion.

59. Encourages the feeling among teachers that their advice is sought on various problems.

60. In discussion groups serves as a real participant rather than attempting to dominate the discussion.

61. In teacher's meetings secures spirited but good-natured disagreement representing real differences in point of view.

62. Encourages teachers to work together in their professional study.

63. Provides an atmosphere in which teachers readily talk over with him their basic problems—without fear.

64. Leads teachers into setting up a machinery for the exchange of professional ideas.

65. Makes possible a plan whereby high school teachers become familiar with elementary school teachers, pupils, and their problems.

66. Makes possible a plan whereby elementary school teachers become cognizant of high school teachers' ideas and problems.

67. Enlists the support of the teaching staff in deciding policies governing promotions on the staff.

68. In group work, seriously attempts to promote the welfare of the group rather than trying to impress other members of the group with his importance.

The check-list that has just been included, was developed by Simpson as a guide for the school principal. It is almost equally useful to the supervisor or other instructional staff member in a leadership role.

A FINAL QUESTION

The improvement of instruction, which is the essence of supervision, cannot be handled as trouble-shooting. It is not a simple matter of rushing into a classroom upon call to make a correction or an adjustment or to apply a skill, as an auto mechanic adjusts a faulty motor when the family car is stalled or is sputtering. Instead, it calls for deliberation and long-range planning.

A motor is a thing within itself; but a classroom has many human ramifications, and its operation is tied into a multitude of connecting parts on the outside. Its supervision includes classroom visitation but also capitalizes upon patient work with teachers in out-of-classroom study groups, extending over a period of time.

It is useless to set a percentage of the principal's time that should be devoted to this improvement of instruction. Such a proposal must be tempered with the realities of the given situation. If the principal cannot free himself from an overburden of organizational and managerial routine, then it is apparent that he will not have the time for the long-range planning that instructional leadership demands. But if he can't free himself from this routine, who is to say whether it is the situation or the inclination of the principal that makes it so?

For Further Consideration

What percentage of his time does the average principal give to instructional leadership? How may a principal's supervisory activities quite naturally vary from those of a supervisor? What will be the nature of the instructional leadership of a principal of a small school who teaches all or part of the school day? How may a high school principal win confidence in his supervision on the part of the teachers whose subjects are not in his field of training? What handicaps do principals face in carrying out a good supervisory program? Where can the principal secure outside help in providing instructional leadership to the faculty? In comparing the principal and the regular supervisor, what advantages does each have in providing instructional leadership?

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II

State Responsibility for School Supervision

THE constitution of the state of Alabama provides that "The legislature shall establish, organize, and maintain a liberal system of public schools throughout the state for the benefit of the children thereof between the ages of seven and twenty-one." And the constitutions of all states contain words of similar intent.

TOP SUPERVISOR

Public education is a function of the state, established in the constitution of any state and expanded through the years by legislative enactment and supervisory direction of the state school office. Guardian of this precious mandate of a free people, the chief state school officer has long since established his position as a diligent leader in American education. Some states have chosen to call him commissioner while a great many more have preferred superintendent.

"The State superintendent shall have power in person or by deputy to visit and inspect schools and make suggestions in regard to the subject matter and methods of instruction offered. . . . He shall have power to attend and assist in meetings of teachers, directors, or patrons, and in every way to elevate the standard and efficiency of the instruction given in the public schools of the State." So read the school laws of a typical state charging the chief school officer with the responsibility for the continuous improvement of instruction. This excerpt is from the Missouri school code, but statements of similar intent can be found throughout the nation.

The office of state superintendent is without a doubt charged by law with the improvement of instruction. For instance, in Oregon "he shall visit annually every county in the State, develop institute work, and visit the principal schools for inspection and supervision." And in Nebraska "the State superintendent of public instruction shall organize teachers' institutes, attend such institutes, and in other ways seek the efficiency of teachers . . . shall visit schools and advise with teachers on the manner in which they are conducted, shall designate the course of study. . . ."

Not content with the mere provision and maintenance of schools, the state superintendent has continually been the advocate of an adequate educational program. He has sought to distribute schooling as equally as possible among the children of the state, whether they be in a city or on a farm, in a residential neighborhood or in a trailer camp. From the days of Horace Mann and Caleb Mills, the chief state school officer has hitched his wagon to the instructional star. He has striven to free himself from the shackles of administrative detail in the interest of instructional improvement. He is in reality the top school supervisor.

In fourteen states he is appointed by the state board of education, in six by the governor, and in the others he is elected by the people.

THE STATE SUPERINTENDENT AS EDUCATIONAL STATESMAN

It is customary for the state head to take annual inventory of the schools in his state, and the conditions surrounding them, and to make such a report through the state board to the people. The professional statesmanship of the position is often reflected through such pages. The sincerity of effort is noted in the following three typical excerpts—introductory statements—from such reports:

Maryland:

It is not a mere coincidence that America has become great, nor is it true that its physical isolation and economic resources have been mainly responsible for its progress. Other nations have enjoyed physical isolation and have had even greater natural resources, and still remained relatively weak internally and externally. America has become great because of the quality of its people and their philosophy of government, which recognizes first and foremost the integrity of human personality and the inherent and inalienable rights of the individual. This philosophy subscribes to the principle that government should be based upon the consent of the governed.

A government thus created can continue to exist only if it has an enlightened citizenry, and the American public school system, which has no counterpart in any other country, was established for the purpose of individual enlightenment and intelligent participation in the processes of government. An unenlightened citizenry, or one even partially unenlightened, is dangerous in a democracy. And it is at this point that the educator must be concerned. If public and universal education is the greatest source of strength in a democracy, it is dangerous to try to maintain just the status quo.¹

Maine:

Affecting attitudes toward education in this state is a growing realization that schools are not a luxury, but rather constitute an essential investment in values which are functional—the preparation of boys and girls for working and living in a progressive Maine. Children and money in the present, and the competence and responsibility of citizens in the future are the important factors involved. The sharpening of public concern for better education promises to bring into meaningful life and service many of the recognized yet unfilled needs of the past—needs which were identified as follows soon after the turn of the century but which remain as major problems today.

Among the most important educational problems confronting our people is that of giving, so far as possible, equality of educational opportunity to all children of the state. . . .

Responsibilities of the public schools may be generalized as two-fold—to the people who invest in them and to the students they serve. The degree to which the school reaches each of these objectives is determined largely by the professional competency and morale of the teachers who are the chief motivating force in the developmental process. If this power is strong, the investment promises good returns. If it is weak in any or many of its components, the hope of yield is correspondingly less secure. To insure proper realization from the great investment in values which Americans make in public education, there should be critical appraisals of those who will teach, the processes by which they are prepared to teach, and the continued efficiency and well-being of those who are teaching.²

New Jersey:

Education has two functions. The first is to serve the needs and the interests of the society which establishes and supports it. The second, without which the first cannot satisfactorily be achieved, is to provide

¹ Maryland State Department of Education, Thomas G. Pullen, Jr., "The State Superintendent Defines Local Responsibility for Support of Public Education," *Eighty-Third Annual Report* (Baltimore: the Department, 1949), p. 9.

² State of Maine, Harlan A. Ladd, Commissioner of Education, *Biennial Report of the State Board and the Commissioner of Education*, 1950, pp. 8-10.

for the individual, growth opportunities appropriate to his particular abilities, needs, interests, and aspirations.

When an individual obtains an education appropriate to him, to an immeasurable extent the welfare of the State is enhanced. For the state that contains a people who individually have had their worthwhile potentialities developed to the highest possible extent can rightfully classify its people as a limitless resource. Its citizens will be varied in the contributions they can render. They will be deeply imbued with a consciousness of their own individual worth and dignity, which is the foundation of self-respect. They will be freed from the frustrations which warp personalities and impair the pursuit of happiness.

The state which amply succeeds in providing appropriate education for its individual citizens will inevitably be strong in achievement, rich in character, powerful in influence, enterprising in nature, blessed with prosperity, infused with wisdom, and vigorous with the loyalty of a capable people. A state can be strong only when its people are strong, and a whole people are strong only when the individuals who comprise the group are given the education most appropriate to them.³

These remarks of Tom Pullen of Maryland, the late Harlan Ladd of Maine, and John Bosshart of New Jersey—retired Commissioner—are representative of the pronouncements that come from America's state school offices—the offices responsible to state mandate for public education in America. The tradition of Horace Mann and Caleb Mills is still with us.

The unique relationship of public education to national welfare is perhaps appreciated and felt by the state superintendent as well as it is by any student of education. The responsibility that he carries makes it so.

In an attempt to determine the true nature and extent of the supervisory leadership that is exerted on the state level, the author corresponded with the state offices of all forty-eight states. From this correspondence and a study of hundreds of bulletins and reports issued under state leadership comes the conviction that this supervisory effort is not only highly effective, it is almost phenomenal—phenomenal in light of the shortage of staff in many of the state offices.

State leadership cannot be measured in dollars spent or in number of supervisory positions provided, although such factors represent practical aspects of the effort. But it can be felt as a co-ordinating

³ State of New Jersey, Commissioner of Education, *Annual Report* (Trenton: State Department of Education, 1950), p. 155.

force that overlaps state lines in molding what has come to be known as American public education. In the remainder of this chapter and in the next a cross section of the state improvement of instruction is presented. The inclusion of some states and not others reflects

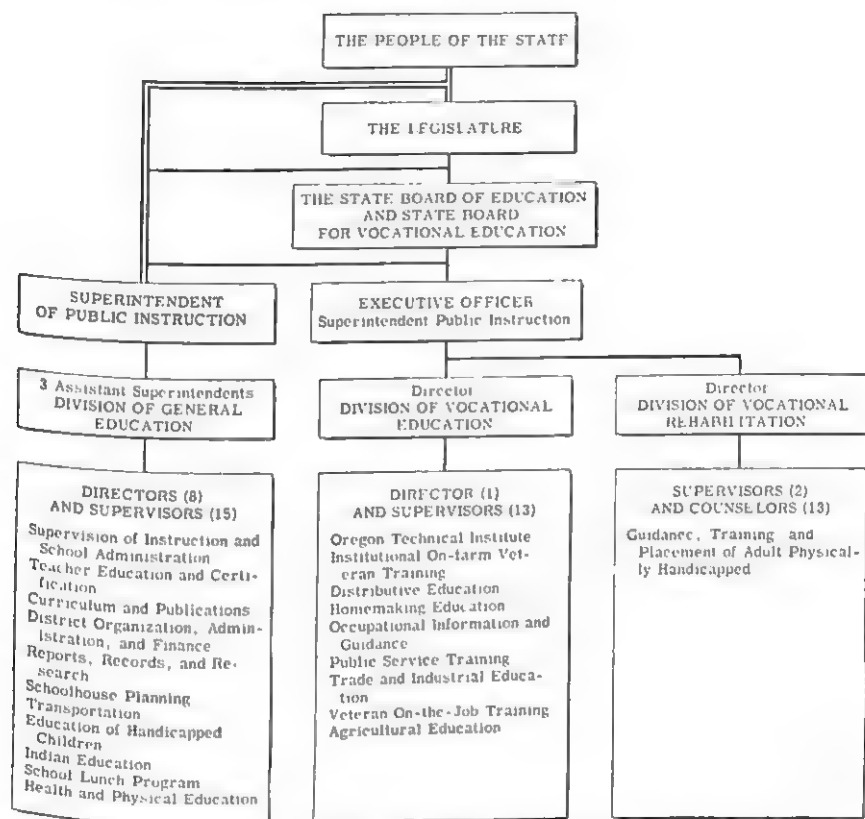


Figure 8. Organization Chart Showing State Supervision of the Oregon Public School System.¹

in part the availability of information rather than a relative judgment of state programs. In part, it represents the attempt to secure a geographical balance in the sampling of state programs. A typical state organization for leadership is presented in Figure 8.

¹ Oregon State Department of Education, *Organization, Functions, and Staff of the State Offices of Education in Oregon*, 1950, p. 3.

A SAMPLING OF STATE HELP

The provisions for state supervisory help are as varied as are the states in size, location, and character. In the more sparsely settled states, where rural schools are small and distances between are great or troublesome, it is not uncommon to find a single elementary school supervisor. Idaho is such a state. The position is a delegation of authority assigned by law to the State Board of Education, who in turn hire those staff members who are to assist the State Superintendent in carrying out the state's educational functions.⁵

What this responsibility of instructional leadership lacks in personnel it makes up for in breadth of services and territory covered. As in almost any state-wide plan for supervisory services, the position is primarily a field job, one that touches the stark realities of American school operation. A recent report from the Idaho office shows concern for such matters as

the alarming shortage in the number of adequately trained teachers,
the greatly increased number of pupils,
teachers who have returned to teaching after being out of the work for a period of years,
extremely large enrollments,
converted basement and hallway rooms,
inadequate lighting, and
insufficient instructional materials.

It is no wonder that state supervision in our times has shed its haughtier characteristics, has rolled up its sleeves, and is tussling with the practical problems faced by local teachers and administrators. The new spirit is expressed when the Idaho supervisor states, "In order to understand the problems and to assist in the development of practical programs of education, based on a knowledge of children and the needs of each community, it is essential that one spend a large proportion of his time working in local school districts." The state supervisor goes out to help, not to inspect.

Services rendered. Foremost is the intention to help a local school system make the best possible use of available resources in-

⁵ Idaho State Board of Education, *Nineteenth Biennial Report* (December, 1950), pp. 22-26.

cluding its personnel, in "getting our money's worth." Meeting the needs of the community is set side by side with meeting the needs of children as the concern of the job. An integrating and professional note is added to the supervisor's responsibilities in this note: "To develop confidence in and respect for the Idaho State Department of Education by representing them at local, state, regional, and national meetings."

State leadership does not duplicate local effort, but renders services that either cannot be supplied at the local level or are more effective from the state level. It is the state's intention to give useful, worthwhile assistance in developing educational programs as well as in working toward the continued improvement of the classroom procedures of individual teachers. This two-pronged movement at the state level resembles the advancement of supervision in a city school system, as treated in Chapter 8.

The busy life of a state supervisor is indicated by the following inventory of meetings attended and services rendered by the Idaho elementary supervisor in the course of one school year and two summers. The information was supplied by the State Department of Education.

State Meetings

County Superintendents' Conference

Administrators' Conference

School Trustees' Meeting

State Parent-Teacher Association Workshop

Seven Education Association District Fall Meetings

State Education Association Delegate Assembly

Thirty-eight local and county teachers' meetings

Sectional Meetings

Inland Empire Education Association

Northwest Association Supervisors and Curriculum Directors

Montana Joint Education Conference

Washington Elementary Education Conference

National Meetings

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development

National Council of State Consultants in Elementary Education

Services

Summer In-Service Workshop at Salmon

Black Pine Conference to develop State Arithmetic Guide

Demonstration lessons for teachers

Work with local supervisors

Speeches to college in-service education extension groups

Cooperation with State Curriculum Director and the State Curriculum and Textbook Committee in all curriculum plans and procedures

Work with county and local boards of education in planning special services for elementary school children

Consultant in summer workshop to develop Language Arts Guide

Consultant in summer education seminar to develop evaluative criteria for elementary schools.

Vermont. The little state of Vermont, in which approximately 7,000 children enter the first grades each year, provides four state helping teachers. In a recent State Board of Education report to the people, the work of these four supervisors is described in the following manner:

During the year these four teachers made a total of 1,117 classroom visitations followed by conference. In round numbers this means that, on the average, they make at least one classroom visit on every day of the school year and on two-thirds of the days of school they make one more. A visit by a helping teacher needs usually a full half day to be reasonably effective.

The helping teachers do many things. They participate in numerous meetings of teachers, superintendents, principals, and school directors, as well as departmental and divisional staff conferences, to say nothing of P.T.A. meetings. They work with the teachers' colleges. This gives an inkling of the heavy load these people are carrying. The work in groups is one of the ways in which they spread their good influence farther. It would be poor economy to expect them to spend more time than they do in classroom visits. There are over 1700 elementary teachers in the public schools of the state. This means that even the heavy schedule of classroom visitations which the helping teachers have followed would enable them to call only once a year on only two-thirds of the elementary teachers.

But the supervisory activities of helping teachers must not be confused with those of superintendents. The helping teacher's work is done mostly with teachers who are trying to make special improvements or those who are having unusual difficulties. It cannot substitute for the continuous contact with every teacher's work which is the primary responsibility of the superintendent.⁶

In its report to the people, the Vermont State Board might have added that 571, or approximately 58 per cent of all schools in the

⁶ Vermont, State Board of Education, *Biennial Report*, 1950, pp. 23-24, and *Instructional Problems in Vermont Schools*, 1950, pp. 1-3.

state are one-teacher schools, thus marking as even more sincere the efforts of these four supervisors as they peddle the improvement of instruction to the one-room schoolhouses hanging on the Vermont hillsides.⁷ In between classroom calls they hung up a record of participating in 225 meetings with teachers, principals, superintendents, parents, and school directors.

Far removed from Vermont in distance, size, and character is Texas, a state that reports 471 supervisors serving at state expense.⁸

Arkansas. The Division of Instruction is directly responsible for the improvement of the educational program in the public schools of Arkansas. Its activities involve general supervision of both the program of instruction itself and also the organization and administration of the educational program in local elementary and secondary schools.

Improvement of the program of instruction in the public schools involves every aspect of education, such as: study of the pupil population and the school community, educational philosophy and objectives, curriculum development, instructional materials and supplies, library service, use of audio-visual aids, laboratory facilities, teacher education and certification, teaching procedures, pupil activity programs, teacher and pupil health, graduation and college entrance requirements, guidance and counseling, evaluation of outcomes of the educational program, community-school board-administrator-teacher-pupil relationships, and the hot lunch program, the school plant, and transportation as they affect the instructional program. This is not a complete list, but it includes the chief elements of the instructional program toward which the activities of this Division are directed.⁹ In Figure 9 can be seen the scope of supervisory leadership and the amount of personnel provided.

Nebraska. The improvement of instruction is the over-all purpose of the Nebraska State Department's program of general supervision of schools. Although supervision is concerned with the more direct improvement of instructional materials and techniques, attention is also given to organizational and administrative practices that will

⁷ United States Office of Education, Walter H. Gaumnitz and David T. Blose, *The One-Teacher School: Its Midcentury Status*, Circular 318, 1950.

⁸ See Table 6, Chapter 12.

⁹ Morgan R. Owens, *Division of Instruction* (Little Rock, Arkansas: State Department of Education, 1950), p. 1.

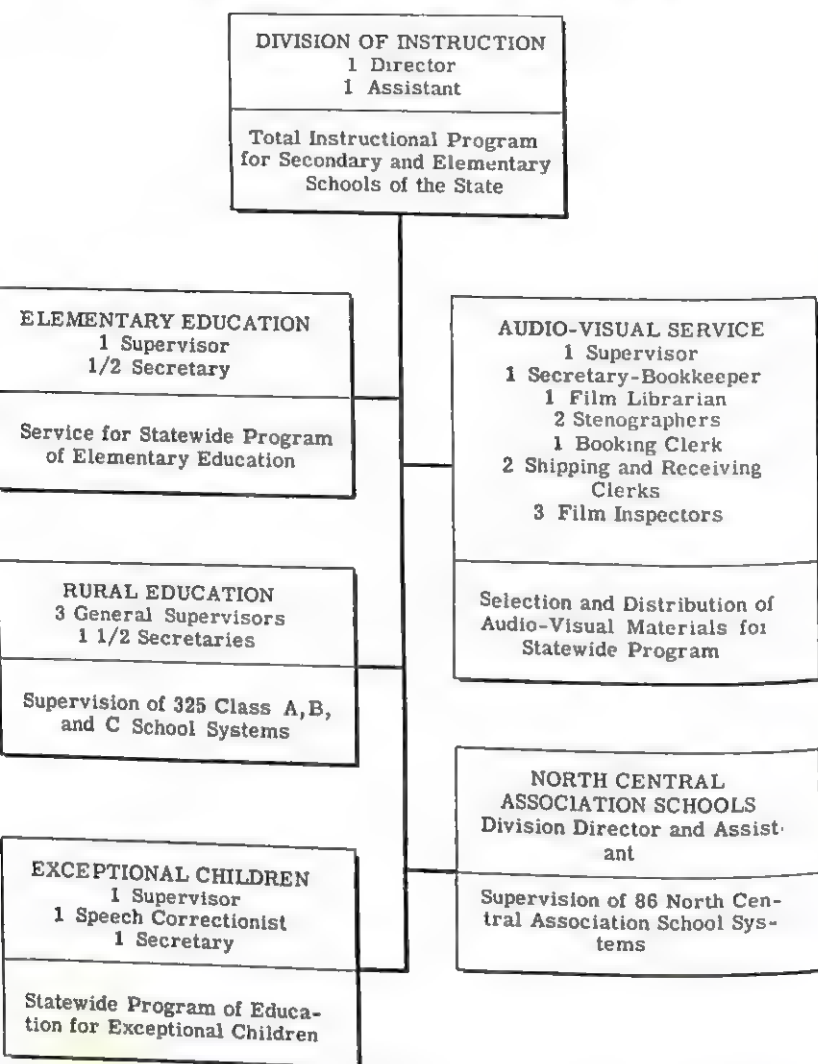


Figure 9. Instructional Supervision, Arkansas State Department of Education.

permit better teaching. Consultative services to local school districts represent an attempt to aid in organizing and planning programs, selecting instructional materials, improving methods of teaching, and evaluating pupil and teacher progress.¹⁰

¹⁰ Otto G. Ruff, *Nebraska Education*, State Superintendent's Annual Report (Lincoln: State Department of Public Instruction, 1951), p. 32.

Supervisors from the Nebraska State Department work particularly with city and county administrators and supervisors through study groups, conferences, workshops, and discussion forums. Staff members of the Department also work co-operatively with local boards of education, administrators, and supervisors in the supervision of instructional programs, curriculum planning, and community-school projects. Whenever a school makes curriculum changes, the Department provides essential consultation of specialists, either from its own staff or from other available resources.

Nebraska has approximately 4,500 rural elementary schools, these being under the supervision of the county superintendents of the 93 counties.

Assistance is given rural elementary schools through general conferences with county superintendents, teachers, and representatives of teacher-training institutions. At the request of the county superintendents, the state supervisors participate in more than 25 county institutes a year. They also assist in a number of college conferences.

These supervisors have further assisted rural schools by personally conferring at least one day a year with each county superintendent. These personal visitations afford opportunity for discussing pertinent school problems, and for visiting a number of representative schools in each county.

Bulletins from the state office are likewise used as a regular contact with the rural elementary teachers and officials. In one year's time the Department published these bulletins for the schools of the state:

The Beginner Grade

Social Studies for Nebraska Elementary School Children

Science for Nebraska Elementary School Children

Music for Nebraska Elementary School Children

Using Audio-Visual Materials in Nebraska Elementary Schools

Partial List of Elementary School Textbooks, Revised

Suggested Program of Studies for Nebraska High Schools, Revised

Partial List of Textbooks and Supplementary Materials for Basic High School Courses, Revised

Laws and Regulations for Normal Training

Driver Education and Traffic Safety in Nebraska High Schools, Revised

Suggested Minimum Requirements for Science Laboratory Equipment

Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction

Suggested Units for a College Course in Health Education

Approval and Accreditation of Nebraska Schools

*Fifty-third Educational Directory
Nebraska Special Education Program*

Ohio. The principal problem facing educators in Ohio is the improvement of the quality of instruction in every classroom, the State Department of Education points out.¹¹ And in the same bulletin that announced this challenge to the local districts, the state office staked out its own major responsibility in the matter with the following statements:

The State Department of Education must, through the work of its various divisions, furnish the leadership and guidance necessary for effective work in each phase of the improvement program. With this thought in mind, the various divisions of the Department have united in contributing to the improvement. The work necessary for improvement cannot be given to one particular division but must be the result of a cooperative effort by all.

Each staff member is available to act as a consultant on questions related to the program. The training and experience of the staff members are such that some individual can be secured to assist educators with any problem connected with supervision, administration, organization, and instruction.

The Department has for years followed a systematic program of visitation in the schools. During such visitation, the Department has tried to approach the school with but one aim, namely, what can be done to make the school a better school in every respect? With this philosophy in mind, much can be done to inform the individual school concerning its strong points, its weaknesses, and its need for improvement. Also much can be done to inform schools as to how others have solved certain problems and what practices have been found by others to be desirable.

The visitation must have as its result the stimulation of those at the local level to do more and more to make each school a better school in all aspects. True improvement in all elements connected with education must have its inception at the local level in order to promote a continuous growth.

The Department has a number of supervisors who have special training in the various subject areas. These supervisors can render assistance in planning desirable subject offerings, in the proper administration of special subjects, and in the specific techniques of instruction related to the special areas.

In its drive for better instruction, the state points out that "each child enrolled in the schools of the state is entitled to the highest possible quality of instruction." Throughout the bulletin it is im-

¹¹ Ohio State Department of Education, *Improving the Quality of Instruction in Ohio Schools* (Columbus: the Department, 1948), pp. 5-7.

plied that the responsibility falls upon all educational agencies and local school districts "in making the highest type of instruction a reality," and that it is the state's job to stimulate and correlate the total effort.

New Jersey. Considering its size, the state of New Jersey has been fortunate in amount of state personnel. "Helping teacher" is a term that was used as early as 1916, when New Jersey inaugurated a state program to provide supervision in the rural sections. With the creation of the 20 original positions went the title of helping teacher. The history of this program indicates a sincere attempt to carry out the job in the true spirit of the title, helping teacher.

The program was instigated by Calvin N. Kendall, then state commissioner, who was concerned about the poor conditions in the rural schools. He envisioned a helping teacher in sympathy with rural life, who would spend all of her time in the schools and give inspiration and assistance to the teachers. He saw the position as improving not only the teaching but the general conditions under which teachers work. He deplored inequalities and wanted the child in the country to have the same educational advantages as the child in the city.

Apparently the step that clinched the inauguration of the program was the establishing of one such position in the fall of 1915 at private expense. Myrtle Garrison was appointed to Hunterdon County as helping teacher, the salary being provided by Samuel Fels, a public-spirited Philadelphian. Her success advanced the idea toward legislation.

By 1941 the number of such positions had grown to 54, seven of whom were specializing in music and one in health education. They were serving more than 2,000 teachers in 551 schools, in 18 of the 21 counties of the state. On an average, each general helping teacher was serving 44 teachers, and each music helper was serving 107. Their visits to schools averaged 309 apiece for the year. Their work has been limited to those school districts making no provision for supervisors in their own budgets.¹²

In the early 1950's, the number of positions had settled at 60, the slight growth from 1941 reflecting not a lack of interest in the program but the tendency of more local districts to provide their own

¹² Thomas J. Durell, "The New Jersey Helping Teachers," *Educational Method*, 21:1 (October, 1941), pp. 9-13.

special positions of instructional leadership. Helping teachers are employed directly by the state and are considered members of the State Department of Education. They are nominated by the Commissioner of Education and appointed by the State Board of Education. They work under the direction of the assistant in charge of elementary education.

The county superintendent shares with the state office the specific direction of the helping teacher, making assignments to schools and helping in blocking out the work. Personality has been placed as probably the most important qualification for the position, it being pointed out that:

She should be the kind of person whom teachers and pupils like to see come into their school, a friendly person with sympathy and understanding and a desire to help. She should preferably have a rural background and point of view, and a knowledge of rural conditions, though experience in teaching in rural schools is not required. Incidentally, she must have the physical ability to stand the traveling, long hours, and other exacting requirements of helping teacher work.¹³

To improve the actual teaching process is the chief duty of the helping teacher. She is directed to help the teacher to help herself. Much time is spent in planning with teachers, individually and in groups, the impetus being the local situation. Her visits to schools are not inspectional. She is not there to discover and point out mistakes.

She is welcomed as a friend. She does not interrupt the work or take a class away from the teacher. However, she may join a discussion as a group member. She is careful not to break the confidence of the children in the teacher. Where it seems the natural thing to do, a conference with a teacher may follow a visit. Besides classroom visitation, co-operative help is commonly given in typical school matters such as these:

1. Planning the year's work, or mapping out its objectives.
2. Developing a course of study or unit materials in specified fields.
3. Helping a beginning teacher to establish herself.
4. Answering the call of a teacher or a school with reference to a problem of a local nature.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 10.

5. Meeting with a local school board to explain the program.
6. Planning teachers' visits to other schools to observe instruction.
7. Helping teachers in developing and rating themselves on a self-evaluation check sheet.
8. Organizing extension courses and reading clubs for teachers.
9. Preparing bulletins of suggestions.
10. Giving standardized tests and interpreting the results.
11. Selecting and ordering supplies and textbooks.
12. Planning special events in the schools and their communities.

New Jersey attributes the success of its state supervisory program to the fact that the teachers in the schools have welcomed the assistance offered and have responded warmly to the leadership. In turn, this enthusiasm of teachers reflects the fact that the program established these helping teachers as co-workers and not inspectors.

Mississippi. All state instructional leadership in Mississippi as in a number of states, is by law correlated in a division of instruction headed by a director, as is the case in a number of states.¹⁴ Supervisory personnel is provided for the various areas of education, such as elementary, secondary, health, library, audio-visual, music, and curriculum services. The division's services have thus been summarized:

1. To integrate programs within the division of instruction.
2. To promote continuous educational planning on the state and community levels.
3. To encourage a broad participation in curriculum services by professional representatives of the State Department of Education, teacher education institutions, and local school officials.
4. To develop leadership programs among lay and professional leaders through workshops, conferences, and educational materials.
5. To participate, upon request, in local school studies or surveys for the purpose of redistricting or reorganization.
6. To participate in the formulation of accrediting standards on all levels.
7. To prepare and assist in the preparation of bulletins, handbooks, and other materials as aids to school officials and classroom teachers.

¹⁴ Mississippi State Department of Public Education, *Biennial Report* (Jackson: the Department, 1950), pp. 30-38.

The state high school supervisor is responsible for the general supervision of secondary schools. Some of his specific duties are: (1) providing the program of studies, (2) working with the accrediting agencies on standards, (3) processing the annual reports to the Accrediting Commission, (4) giving consultative service to local administrators, (5) giving consultative service to community groups, (6) publishing state bulletins in this field, and (7) visiting secondary schools.

This summary of his activities for the two-year period indicates the nature of his work:

1. Two hundred ninety-five visits to high schools.
2. Thirty-eight conferences with school boards or groups other than superintendents and teachers.
3. Twenty-one addresses before professional groups.
4. Thirty-five addresses before community groups.
5. Participation in five school and community surveys.
6. Supervision of the publication of three secondary bulletins.

In a period of two years, these bulletins and handbooks were published and distributed by the division:

Standards on Teacher Education and Certification

Junior College and You

School Lunch News

Music Education in the Public Schools

Suggestions for Applying the Evaluative Criteria to Mississippi Schools

A Program of Industrial Arts for Mississippi Schools

Suggested Activities and Guidance Programs for Small High Schools

A Suggested List of Books for Mississippi High School Libraries

Catalogue of Films and Correlated Materials

Handbook on Audio-Visual Programs

Science Supplement in Alcohol Education

Regulations for Standardizing Elementary Schools

Handbook for Elementary Teachers

Educational Directory

In the two-year period the supervisors and officials of the division of instruction reported this field activity over the state:

Number of visits to schools	5,540
Conferences with local school officials	669
Number of appearances before professional groups	523
Number of appearances before community groups	522
Number of surveys	129

Type of positions. In Mississippi, at the state level, besides the superintendency these positions of instructional leadership are provided: director of crippled children's service, director of instruction, supervisor of agricultural high schools and junior colleges, supervisor of secondary education, supervisor of elementary schools, three supervisors of Negro education, supervisor of audio-visual education, supervisor of library service, supervisor of music education, supervisor of narcotics education, and supervisor of adult education.

EARNESTNESS OF EFFORT

The state's supervision of the miscellaneous instructional efforts of the labyrinth of classrooms within its borders is something that cannot be encompassed in a legal code, something that cannot be defined in clarifications of function, something that cannot be measured by tabulations of school visits. Rather, this total state output of leadership is something that must be felt, something best appreciated by experiencing the work of the men and women who carry the responsibility—who crisscross their respective states and their colleagues' paths, time and time again, as they follow this and that opportunity, great or small, to improve the welfare of children by seeking to improve the welfare of schools.

Lacking the possibilities of actually paralleling such experience, our next best means of capturing the true feeling of this total supervisory effort is to sample the statements of state superintendents, assistants, supervisors, and visiting teachers as they report their daily routine to their colleagues, their boards, and their supporters. From all sections of the nation come these testimonials of earnest supervisory effort, as recorded in state bulletins:

South Dakota

Mr. Artchoker and Mr. Wanek are attending a meeting today and tomorrow at Helena, Montana, at which time they are representing the South Dakota Indian Commission and the Governor at a regional meeting dealing with Indian problems. Weather almost prevented the trip, but with the assistance of the South Dakota Highway Patrol and the Montana Highway Patrol they were able to get to Mobridge to board the Milwaukee train to Butte, and to continue from Butte to Helena. Both visited several county and city superintendents in the northwest part of the state during the month.¹⁵

¹⁵ Harold S. Freeman, State Superintendent, *Bulletin to Directors and Supervisors* (Pierre, South Dakota: Department of Public Instruction, December 10, 1951), p. 2.

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¹⁵ Harold S. Freeman, State Superintendent, *Bulletin to Directors and Supervisors* (Pierre, South Dakota: Department of Public Instruction, December 10, 1951), p. 2.

Delaware

Each supervisor sets up his own objectives for the year's work. These vary within each supervisory district. Each school district makes a report of its outstanding accomplishments. Space will not permit us to write the accomplishments of each school district under the immediate supervision of each supervisor.

In eastern New Castle County, Miss Ella J. Holley, supervisor, continued to place special attention to the interpreting of the curriculum bulletins in the field of social studies and reading. Special emphasis was placed upon the improvement of reading in the intermediate grades. Work-type reading materials were recommended for every school. A beginning was also made in building up reading materials in grades two and three. Every school was visited monthly, and each teacher had a minimum of three visits, with the teachers of the smaller schools receiving more. Special emphasis was also given to classroom and school equipment. Nearly all of the small schools bought playground equipment and had old equipment repaired. New desks, tables and chairs, and additional library file boxes were secured for some of the schools where needed.¹⁶

Maine

During the second year of the biennium, only two of four elementary supervisors were available, since one resigned and was not replaced; the fourth was on leave of absence for further study. In spite of this skeleton force, 82 school unions and cities with 2,900 teachers were visited. Work conferences lasting from one to two days on problems peculiar to varying situations have been held with thirty-nine groups of teachers and superintendents. P.-T.A. groups have received a large part of the service to organizations not directly concerned with teaching.

Three of the staff members taught at summer sessions in the state for periods of three weeks. They also assisted in the extension services of the University by holding classes for one or more sessions of several courses. Radio broadcasts were presented at the request of radio stations desirous of having new educational developments discussed. Working with various departments of the Maine Teachers Association and the county teachers associations is a continuing function of the division.¹⁷

Other programs. Maryland is a state that has underwritten adequate supervision for elementary schools for many years, and for secondary schools since 1945. A few of the larger counties provide special supervisors beyond the state minimum program.

South Carolina reports that the state has had its ups-and-downs in developing a program of instructional help. Several years ago a

¹⁶ Delaware, Department of Public Education, *Annual Report* (Dover, Delaware: State Board of Education, June 30, 1950), p. 87.

¹⁷ State of Maine, *op. cit.*, p. 19.

supervisory program on a regional basis was attempted, but was short-lived. A joint state program of supervision sponsored by the Teachers Association, Administrators Association, and the State Department of Education is being planned.¹⁸

Because of the sparse population, resulting in high costs, and a limited school revenue in Montana, the county superintendents ordinarily do not have a supervisory staff and only a few of the larger schools have local supervisory personnel. The State Department of Public Instruction has one rural school supervisor and one music supervisor. In addition to this, the Vocational Education Department has supervisors in five fields, vocational agriculture, home economics, trade and industry, distributive education, and vocational guidance. These people offer some assistance to the county superintendents and the local superintendents.¹⁹

The elementary supervisor in the South Dakota state office reported in a four-months' period 61 counties visited once each, 15 counties visited more than once, 40 talks given at county meetings, 35 rural schools visited, 32 superintendents of independent districts contacted and visited, five elementary independent schools visited, three independent schools evaluated, five workshops conducted, one talk given at a Parent-Teacher meeting, one National Rural and County Superintendents Conference attended, and one talk delivered at a state school board convention.²⁰

THE SCOPE OF A STATE'S LEADERSHIP

State supervision of instruction may be a legislative or constitutional mandate. It may be a concept or an ideal in the minds of state officials. But regardless of what else it may be, above all it is a reality. Varied as it is from state to state, it has the following common characteristics, some of which indicate practice and some basic principle:

1. *The supervision of local school effort by the state is a legal responsibility, reflecting the fact that public education is a function of the state.*

¹⁸ Thomas I. Dowling, Director Division of Instruction, South Carolina State Department of Education, personal letter to the author, October 19, 1951.

¹⁹ Genevieve Squires, Deputy Superintendent, Montana State Department of Public Instruction, personal letter to the author, November 8, 1951.

²⁰ Olive S. Berg, "Supervisor's Observations," *Service Bulletin* (Pierre, South Dakota: Department of Public Instruction, December, 1951), p. 4.

2. *State supervision supplements rather than duplicates local effort.* It renders services that either cannot be supplied at the local level or are more effectively handled from the state level. Consequently, direct personnel service is more likely to be given the small or rural school district than the city district, to compensate for inequalities in the provision of staff on the local level.

3. *State supervision tends to equalize educational opportunities for children.* It is concerned with raising standards wherever possible. Besides concentrating direct supervision in such school districts, the improvement of instruction is furthered at the state level through the development of teaching guides and the provision of in-service conferences.

4. *The three most common supervisory approaches used by the state office are: (1) school visitation, (2) the development of instructional aids such as teaching guides, and (3) holding educational conferences.* Much of the time of state supervisors is spent in visiting schools. This is a wholesome carryover from an earlier period. The teacher in an isolated school appreciates direct help in her own classroom. As for conferences, not only is it universal for the state office to arrange them, it is customary for state workers to be called to help in those arranged by local and county groups. Teaching guides, issued by the state, in a sense provide a common denominator for instructional effort. Although no longer looked upon as a syllabus to standardize local effort, the state guide helps individual teachers and schools as they reach for the achievement that is on the higher shelf.

5. *State supervision, in its various forms, has shown itself to be highly amenable to the conditions surrounding the local school program.* A crowded school, an emergency credentialed teacher, and the use of inadequate building facilities are examples of local factors that are invariably taken into consideration by the helping teacher. State departments have long since discarded the tendency to send out representatives with sets of right answers, to be applied regardless of variations in local setting.

A supervisory program is not something that is prefabricated in a state superintendent's office and then erected on the local school site. Instead, it is something that comes from seeds in the schools—and is best nurtured in that soil. The attitudes of local teachers and ad-

ministrators are a most important factor in the presentation of help.

6. *The state supervision of high schools still retains some of its earlier tinge of inspection for the sake of accreditation.* This reflects in part the original establishment of the high school supervisory office for this purpose. It reflects even more the continued practice of the accrediting associations to hold high schools to a standard to assure acceptance of their graduates by the admission offices of co-operating colleges.

Back as early as 1871 the University of Michigan was operating a system whereby the college admitted without examination the graduates of high schools that had been inspected and approved by its authorities. This desire for a closer relationship between colleges and high schools brought with it not only associations but inspectors to carry out the merger. The six accrediting associations are, in the order of their creation:

The New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools,
1885

The Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools,
1892

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools,
1895

The Southern Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges,
1895

The Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools,
1918

The Western Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges,
1930

The North Central Association took the early lead in setting up procedures for evaluating the work of the high schools in its twenty states, and thus maintaining a list of accredited schools. The evaluation included consideration of housing, library, organization, teacher qualifications, teaching load, instruction, discipline and spirit, administration, and records. Evaluative procedures in recent years have been broadened. The approach is more democratic, providing the in-service growth of the local teaching staff through participation in the effort. State supervision has consequently moved in the direction of instructional improvement.

7. *The state superintendent's office is commonly respected as one of educational statesmanship.* This is not to say that every holder of this office is looked upon as one competent to analyze civic and social trends and to call the turn of school affairs in true relationship. Rather it is to point out that in general the position has grown with the schools and the profession. It stands as one of prime instructional leadership and in general is given high respect by the public as well as the profession.

8. *Membership and participation in state and national supervisory associations is quite common among state supervisors.* A review of state bulletins and mimeographed reports of conferences reveals that the average state supervisor is one who is convention- and conference-wise. He belongs to the national organization, the Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development, of the National Education Association, and usually attends its annual meeting. He belongs to a state organization of his fellow workers and attends its annual meeting. In a number of states, such as California, membership and participation in a sectional supervisory group is common. All this expresses professional interest and in-service development, and in turn asks from the investment of time and money a consequent upgrading of service to teacher and child.

A scale of evaluation. Fourteen criteria for determining a good state program of supervision have been set out by Moorer:

1. The program should be so organized that authority is developed through cooperative study and analysis of the situation.
2. It should have a professionally prepared and experienced staff.
3. It should provide encouragement for continuity of staff.
4. It should facilitate coordination and unity in all supervisory services supplied through the state department of education.
5. It should rely primarily upon democratic leadership to achieve its purposes. And should develop educational leadership in local schools and communities rather than attempt to secure results primarily through direct supervision of individual schools and teachers.
6. It should be concerned with developing a total school program.
7. It should make use of appropriate materials and resources that are available.
8. It should provide for cooperative development of both immediate and long-range plans which are continuously adapted to educational needs of the state.
9. It should be planned, in so far as possible, on the basis of a systematic program of educational research and experimentation.

10. It should contribute to the development of understanding relative to the purposes of education in light of the nature and needs of our society.

11. It should contribute to the development of understanding relative to the essential factors of human growth and development, particularly with reference to the nature of the learning process and its implications for teaching.

12. It should contribute to the coordination and integration of efforts of all institutions, agencies, and groups interested in the improvement of education on a state-wide basis.

13. It should cooperate with regional, national, and international agencies in the improvement of education.

14. It should provide for continuous critical evaluation of all of its aspects by the use of appropriate means.²¹

Many states are meeting most of these standards, and most are meeting many. There is little reason to be pessimistic about the present state of instructional leadership. The advance in the present century has been most pronounced. Writing in 1884, John Swett, an early educational leader on the West Coast, reviewed the results of inadequate supervision and teaching with these reflections on classroom procedure:

A state superintendent, who had made, during a four years' term of office, hundreds of visits to county schools, recently stated that he never once saw a teacher conducting a recitation without a textbook in hand; that he seldom saw either teacher or scholar at the blackboard; that he never saw a school globe actually in use; that pupils seemed to know nothing of local geography, and when asked to point north, uniformly pointed overhead to the zenith; that he saw but one school cabinet; that he never saw a teacher give an object-lesson; and that he never found a school where pupils had been taught how to write a letter either of business or friendship.

An examiner of one of the ten largest cities of our country says that he found many classes of children in the primary department who, after attending school three years, had never made a figure or letter upon the blackboard; that oral lessons were copied into blank-books and memorized by pupils; that the school globe was used only to show that the earth is round; that most of the teaching consisted in hearing verbatim recitations; that in more than half the recitations written answers were required; that pupils were worried by frequent written examinations; and that the anxiety of teachers seemed to be not to develop the faculties of pupils, but to get them through the annual official written examination

²¹ Samuel H. Moorer, *State Supervision in Florida*, an abstract submitted at George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee, 1949, pp. 2-3.

into the higher grade. This crude teaching was the result, partly of bad supervision, and partly of untrained teachers.²²

This statement by Swett was published in 1884. Education has reduced illiteracy in the nation from 20 per cent in 1870 to 3 per cent today. The comparison of school methods today with those of the last quarter of the past century tells much of the story. The leadership that is given in instructional improvement pays dividends.

TIME GOES IN A HURRY

A state official, whether he be superintendent or visiting teacher, research worker or supervisor, in going about the state seems to whack away on first one and then another of the segments that make up public education's total front. Always the exertion of every ounce of energy is asked. Always co-ordination of effort is needed.

As the Connecticut state commissioner points out, the diversity of activities and the geographic distribution of the various units of the state department make imperative the careful co-ordination of all component parts, a common understanding of purposes, and a common knowledge of departmental resources. He sees the department there as including the central office staff, the personnel of Connecticut's four state teachers colleges, the twelve state vocational-technical schools, the superintendents and the supervisors of the rural supervisory service, and the staff of the rehabilitation regional offices.²³

The writer appreciates the supervisory service that in a typical state the state colleges and the state university render in conjunction with the chief state school office as a part of a co-ordinated school improvement program. Limitations in the size of the present study have prevented the inclusion of sections elaborating on the specific contributions of state colleges. To separate their contributions to a state supervisory program from their more immediate and distinctive teacher-training activities would call for a careful study in itself. Such a project awaits—and deserves—the attention of a student of the subject.

Today's state department of public instruction, in its relentless drive for better schools, follows a code that respects no theoretical

²² John Swett, *Methods of Teaching* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1884), pp. 8-9.

²³ Connecticut State Department of Education, *Annual Report*, 1950, p. 2.

divisions between matters of instruction and those of administration, between matters of administration and those of public relations. Even though at times buried behind reports of daily attendance, state financial disbursements, teacher certification, assessed valuations, and Federal vocational aid, the state department seems to keep its eye on the instructional star.

The representative examples of this effort included in this chapter present a story of eagerness, sincerity, and haste. It is a story that has its counterparts in every state in the Union. The story of the supervision of America's classrooms is one of restless energy and limited time. There is so much to be done, so few to do it, and so little time in which to accomplish the goals. For the typical state worker the school year is gone before he knows it.

For Further Consideration

Is there any relationship between the method by which the chief state school officer receives his position and the instructional leadership extended by him? Are there traces of the influence of the state school office upon instruction the past few years? What dangers does a state office face in limiting its instructional leadership largely to the development of teaching guides? How are the state textbook adoptions related to the state's responsibility for the continuous improvement of instruction? To what extent is an inadequate state staff caused by factors other than finances?

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well as in Washington. Apportioning limited personnel over a wide expanse of territory is *nothing new* to the rural school office. Having to ride the circuit alone is common to the county superintendent in many states. For, as noted in Table 6, almost half of the counties of the nation are without supervisors.

The function of good supervision in the county is the same as that in the city. Good supervision stimulates the school personnel to the highest endeavor. It co-ordinates their effort and facilitates the work of the children. It evaluates the whole undertaking.

The office of county school superintendent has emerged during the present century as one of strategic instructional significance. Starting out as an arm of the state department of education, it has penetrated into the inner life of the rural community. It has developed in its own right. It is not unusual for one of these offices to serve as many as 100 schools, 150 teachers, and 250 school trustees. The Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association points out that in America variations among individual counties are even more marked and show greater contrast than regional diversities. Such wide variations as these are revealed: In the hill region of Western Georgia one county has but 365 children in all of its public schools. In the schools of a single West Coast county more than a half million are enrolled. In the Midwestern region there is a county with 134 schools but 155 local boards of education. In a Louisiana parish, a county, a single board handles all public education.¹

Nevertheless, the 3,400 county offices have in common the maintenance of educational standards and the improvement of instruction. That is, they have in common the basic principle of school supervision that has come down out of the nation's past, the principle and spirit that are the professional goad to better schools. Specialized educational services dealing with the improvement of instruction, once the province of city school systems, are now commonly brought to rural school districts.

It is somewhat difficult to determine the exact amount of supervisory personnel available in county school offices. Table 5 reveals the number of professional staff members in such offices, as re-

¹ Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, *The County Superintendent of Schools in the United States*, Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1950), p. 21.

TABLE 5

COUNTY OFFICE STAFF MEMBERSHIP²

<i>Type of School District Organization by States</i>	<i>Number of Superintendents</i>	<i>Number of Other Professional Staff Members</i>
<i>Supervisory Union or Superintendency District as an Intermediate District</i>		
Connecticut.....	12	—
Maine.....	105	—
Massachusetts.....	66	—
New Hampshire.....	48	2
New York.....	175	—
Rhode Island.....	2	—
Vermont.....	44	105
Total.....	452	107
<i>County as the Intermediate Unit</i>		
Arizona.....	14	14
Arkansas.....	75	6
California.....	58	395
Colorado.....	63	—
Idaho.....	44	20
Illinois.....	102	91
Indiana.....	92	85
Iowa.....	99	79
Kansas.....	105	60
Michigan.....	83	72
Minnesota.....	87	32
Mississippi.....	82	97
Missouri.....	114	20
Montana.....	56	10
Nebraska.....	93	—
New Jersey.....	21	61
North Dakota.....	53	11
Ohio.....	88	31
Oklahoma.....	77	100
Oregon.....	36	8
Pennsylvania.....	66	105
South Carolina.....	46	142
South Dakota.....	67	37
Texas.....	254	145
Washington.....	39	20

² *Ibid.*, pp. 175-176. (From 1948-1949 statistics of the United States Office of Education and the National Education Association.)

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County School Supervision

THE improvement of instruction for about half of the nation's school children is largely dependent upon the supervision that comes out of the office of the county superintendent. No less than half a million teachers are largely dependent upon that office for instructional leadership. The story of this sincere contribution is the story of about 3,400 superintendents and approximately the same number of supervisors.

In searching for the formula for successful county supervision, a single common denominator of this professional effort is highly elusive. Apparent is a mass of successful effort, rather than a basic plan of action. It is not an easy matter to record in these few pages this story. In the attempt to cover this aspect of the subject—more so than in any other section of the book—the writer has resorted to enumerations. As many as eleven tabulations or lists, as well as two tables, are included here. They facilitate the condensation of the larger account of instructional improvement at the county level. The chapter draws heavily upon experience direct from the field, in an attempt to present the county program as it operates. The chapter dealing with state supervisory leadership should be considered in close relationship to the county treatment, there being no sharp line of demarcation.

THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT

Year in, year out, county superintendents in all sections of the country tussle with the problem of wringing from a limited staff of helpers all the instructional service possible for the schools. This is true in Minnesota as well as in New Mexico, in South Carolina as

well as in Washington. Apportioning limited personnel over a wide expanse of territory is nothing new to the rural school office. Having to ride the circuit alone is common to the county superintendent in many states. For, as noted in Table 6, almost half of the counties of the nation are without supervisors.

The function of good supervision in the county is the same as that in the city. Good supervision stimulates the school personnel to the highest endeavor. It co-ordinates their effort and facilitates the work of the children. It evaluates the whole undertaking.

The office of county school superintendent has emerged during the present century as one of strategic instructional significance. Starting out as an arm of the state department of education, it has penetrated into the inner life of the rural community. It has developed in its own right. It is not unusual for one of these offices to serve as many as 100 schools, 150 teachers, and 250 school trustees. The Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association points out that in America variations among individual counties are even more marked and show greater contrast than regional diversities. Such wide variations as these are revealed: In the hill region of Western Georgia one county has but 365 children in all of its public schools. In the schools of a single West Coast county more than a half million are enrolled. In the Midwestern region there is a county with 134 schools but 155 local boards of education. In a Louisiana parish, a county, a single board handles all public education.¹

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County School Supervision

TABLE 5 (Continued)

<i>Type of School District Organization by States</i>	<i>Number of Superintendents</i>	<i>Number of Other Professional Staff Members</i>
Wisconsin.....	72	125*
Wyoming.....	23	3
Total.....	2,009	1,769
<i>County-Unit as the Intermediate Unit</i>		
Alabama**.....	67	35
Florida.....	67	67
Georgia.....	159	271
Kentucky.....	120	135
Louisiana**.....	64	43
Maryland**.....	23	91
New Mexico.....	31	15
North Carolina**.....	100	3
Tennessee.....	95	315
Utah**.....	35	69
Virginia**.....	88	235
West Virginia.....	55	165
Total.....	910	1,444

* Estimated.

** Employed by the state.

ported by the National Education Association and the United States Office of Education. The positions include supervisors whose day is spent in the classrooms. They likewise include those positions whose service is not directly supervisional.

Intermediate state governmental units. County superintendents are found in 39 states. Twelve states are usually considered as county-unit states, that is, states in which the county is the basic unit of school administration. These are: Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, New Mexico, North Carolina, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia, and West Virginia.³

In the other 27 of these 39 states, the county is an intermediate school agency of the state, local school districts being politically

³ National Education Association. *Legal Status of the School Superintendent*, Research Bulletin, 29:3 (October, 1951), pp. 92-93.

subordinate, but administratively independent in varying degrees.

In nine states there are no county superintendents, the nine being: Connecticut, Delaware, Maine, Massachusetts, Nevada, New Hampshire, New York, Rhode Island, and Vermont. The six New England states have intermediate divisions known as supervisory unions. New York has a type of organization called a superintendency union. The Delaware state department of education administers schools directly, except for those in 15 independent districts. The rural schools of Nevada are administered by deputy state superintendents; urban centers operate as independent districts with city superintendents as school administrators.

County superintendents by law are frequently considered county officers rather than educational personnel *per se*. In Arkansas the county superintendent is the agent of the state board in the allocation of transportation funds; in Missouri he is supervisor of transportation; in Montana he is a member of the county board of educational examiners; in Nebraska he is a member of the county board of health and the secretary thereof; in North Carolina he may serve as welfare officer; in North Dakota he is a member of the board of appraisal, the county board of health, and the county park commission.

These varied responsibilities mark the position as one of broad contacts in the rural communities which it serves, a great advantage in the co-ordination of the schools' efforts with those of other community agencies. These opportunities for community service can very well add to the professional stature of the position today. However, these extra-school duties must not result in neglect of the instructional leadership that gives the position its professional bearing.

The first county superintendency was established by law in Delaware in 1829, and all but four of the 38 states had tried the office by 1879. The county, or some such state subdivision, is a political unit for administrative and governmental affairs in every state except Rhode Island.

In most states the candidate for the position of county superintendent goes directly to the voters. In New Jersey the twenty-one county superintendents are appointed for a term of three years by the State Commissioner of Education, with the approval of the State Board of Education. As indicated by these principal duties

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of the position set forth by law, the county superintendent carries a heavy responsibility for the supervision of instruction:

1. Exercise general supervision over the public schools of his county in accordance with the regulations of the State Board of Education, with the exception of city school districts which are supervised by city superintendents.

2. Visit and examine all schools under his care.

3. Advise boards of education about their duties, particularly the construction, heating, ventilating, and lighting of schoolhouses.

4. Recommend to boards of education and teachers proper studies, methods, discipline, and management of schools.

5. Advise boards of education in regard to the courses of study prescribed by the boards.

6. With the approval of the Commissioner, order withholding of state money from schools not providing facilities and courses of study suitable to the ages and attainments of all pupils.

7. Appoint members of the board of education for a new district or for any district which fails to elect members at the regular time.

8. Approve the necessity for and the cost and method of the transportation of pupils.

9. Report annually to the Commissioner such matters about the schools under his supervision as the Commissioner shall require.⁴

Problems of rural leaders. Even though highly rewarded in satisfaction of effort, the one who sets out to help instruction in a typical rural school district of the nation faces many practical problems. These were recently reviewed by the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association:

1. Higher pay, more personal freedom, and greater opportunity to do good work in city school systems tend to attract the more capable teachers away from the smaller village and open country schools. Standards of professional preparation for rural teachers in many parts of the country are deplorably low and a large percentage of those who are employed do not meet even these meager requirements.

2. Poorly arranged and meagerly equipped school buildings tend to perpetuate a narrow, traditionally academic educational program.

3. Severe limitations on bonded indebtedness hinder the construction of new and badly needed buildings.

4. An antiquated system of property taxation continues to be the chief source of school support.

5. Sparsity of population tends to limit the scope of the educational

⁴ New Jersey Department of Education, *Manual of Organization and Administration of the Department of Education* (Trenton: the Department, 1950), pp. 27-28.

program because of the relatively small numbers of children that can be brought together at a particular point for instructional purposes.

6. Transportation is a service that is claiming a larger and larger share of the all too meager rural school budget.

7. Specialized educational services that are commonly accepted elements of educational programs are expensive and difficult to provide in rural areas.

8. An outmoded system of school district organization persists in many parts of the country despite the strenuous efforts being made to improve it.

9. Instructional demands overreach the means of meeting them. There is an ever-increasing pressure from parents, particularly from parents of young children, for nursery schools and kindergarten classes; for health, guidance, and psychological services; for music, art, and physical education; for better transportation services. Neither the administrative organization nor the internal organization of the rural school is adapted to the provision of anything close to a satisfactory program of educational services of this nature.

10. Reshaping the rural school system to meet the demands for a modern educational program calls for an extensive in-service education program for teachers, remodeling and conditioning old school buildings, and the construction of many new ones, introducing new types of instructional materials into the schools, employment of specialized teachers, extension of library services into rural neighborhoods, and finding new sources of educational support.⁵

THE COUNTY SUPERVISOR

The establishment of the position of county supervisor was no phenomenon. It is further reflection of the state responsibility for the education of its young citizens, a good portion of whom are scattered among the small schools of the rural areas. The position was a geographical reality whose emergence was as natural as the coming of the rural free delivery of the mail. Mothered by the one-room rural school—standing more or less isolated on the American countryside, county supervision at its best has blossomed into a broad professional service not unlike that found in a large city. However, in a majority of the nation's counties the program is still limited to the physical and professional energies of one person, the county superintendent.

Historical beginnings. The rural supervisor was first attached to the state department under the title of agent. As early as 1884, Massachusetts reported three officials styled agents of the state board

⁵ Department of Rural Education, *op. cit.*, pp. 25-26.

of education. Their duties were to visit schools, hold institutes, and stimulate teachers and school officers to do an effective piece of work.⁶ From that time on the idea of special supervisors for rural schools was gradually extended over the country. The general recognition of the backward school conditions prevailing in many rural areas was a challenge to America's democratic urge to equalize educational opportunities. Although legislative proposals for these educational helpers for rural areas originated with the professional educator, their democratic texture was highly appealing to the citizens who sat in the legislative positions.

In the case of teaching shortages, whenever a state has supported emergency-credentialed teachers, the vast majority have been found in rural areas. Rural schools have always been poor competitors for properly trained teachers when bargaining in the open market against their city cousins. Among the odds in favor of the city securing the better trained teachers have been higher salaries, greater freedom from lay supervision offered the teacher in his personal or out-of-school personal affairs, and the traditional magnetism of the metropolitan center to Americans in general.

The financial ability of the city system to pay higher teachers salaries has likewise enabled the city to provide its own supervisory staff. All of these factors played a part in the general movement for the provision of rural school supervision at the state and county levels. Furthermore the idea was kindred to the general movement for better social and economic conditions in the rural areas so prevalent early this century. By 1915 at least half the states had provided rural school supervisors.

County supervision is tied closely into state support in its historical development. The story is one of apparent need being finally matched by state recognition and support. As is often the case in the creation of new school services, the need of a child has been the underlying motivating force in the extension of supervisory positions. Perhaps this should always be the test of any proposal for additional supervisory positions whether on state, county, or local level—does the child in the school need them? Will he secure a better education because of them? The Department of Rural Educa-

⁶ Katherine M. Cook, *Supervision of Instruction as a Function of State Departments of Education* (Washington, D. C., United States Office of Education, 1941), p. 7.

tion of the National Education Association has reviewed some of the earlier provisions for county supervision.⁷

Maryland. As early as 1905 Maryland provided supervision for Baltimore County. It was in the primary grades and the expense was met by state appropriation. However, as late as 1916, only seven of Maryland's 23 counties were receiving such service from the state. In 1922, at least one supervisor was provided for each county. Later the law provided one supervisor in each county with less than 80 elementary teachers, two for from 80 to 119 teachers, three for from 120 to 185 teachers, and so on.

Virginia and Tennessee. The first county supervision in Virginia and Tennessee took place in Negro schools, with reimbursement from the Jeanes Funds. This was a program that began operation in the South in 1908 for the purpose of improving conditions in the Negro schools. These supervisors rapidly won the enthusiastic approval of school officials and of the public, and consequently instigated state appropriations for county supervision. In 1950, the U. S. Office of Education reported for Virginia 117 white supervisors and 117 Negro supervisors, and for Tennessee 102 and 29, respectively.

Wisconsin. The state of Wisconsin supplemented supervision by county superintendents in 1915 with legislation enabling each county to employ at least one supervising teacher. Today the program includes a second position for counties with more than 120 teachers under the superintendent's control. Latest figures show more than 100 supervising teachers for the state.

New Jersey. As reviewed in Chapter 11, New Jersey took a lead back in 1916 in establishing the position of helping teacher. The 20 positions then established have now trebled in number.

California. The drive for county supervisors in California came with Will C. Wood, who headed the state school office from 1919 to 1927. As had been the case with Kendall in New Jersey in 1915, Wood wished to equalize educational opportunities for children by improving rural schools. Provision for county supervision received legislative encouragement in 1921, in 1931, and again in 1947. This stepping up of the program has resulted in more than 300 county supervisors today.

⁷ Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, *The Rural Supervisor at Work*, Yearbook, Marcia Everett, editor (Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1949), pp. 157-174.

THE PROVISION OF COUNTY SERVICE TODAY

County and state supervision are centered upon the rural or smaller school systems, enabling the latter to secure instructional leadership that city systems provide for themselves. It is almost impossible to determine the amount of such supervisory service. This is due to the multiplicity of titles used to designate such positions, the wide variation in the fiscal provisions from state to state, and the continuous change in the number of positions.

The writer has made a conscientious attempt to survey the amount of supervisory help provided county and rural schools. The last previous study was reported by Jane Franseth of the United States Office of Education, in 1951.⁵ In her study were included tables showing general county school supervision by states. Using some of these data "to prime the state pumps," the writer corresponded with all 48 state offices of education asking for latest figures showing the extent of the supervision in the counties, unions, districts, or parishes. It was suggested that if the state's service were provided at large, rather than being fiscally funneled through the county office, such positions should be included.

This survey is reported in Table 6. In order to present the facts as clearly as possible, it has been deemed advisable to include as a part of the table a list of statements from various states elaborating on the features of their programs. Needless to say, the table tells one story of professional optimism and another of discouragement. The contrasts in the provision of instructional leadership are great. Rather than to make such summaries here, it is left to the reader to make his own interpretations of the data in light of his own interests.

It was natural that there were some discrepancies in the state reporting, because of interpretation. For instance, a few states included a few vocational supervisors, while most of the reports were more limiting. As a whole, it can be accepted as a good picture of the county supervision picture today. If a few positions were reported that should not have been, they were balanced by those that were not reported but should have been.

It is appreciated that the number of supervisors in any state may change from year to year. Many of the states are steadily moving toward a greater number of positions.

⁵ Jane Franseth, United States Office of Education, *Status of County School Supervision in the United States* (Washington, D. C.: the Office, 1951).

TABLE 6

EXTENT OF COUNTY OR RURAL SUPERVISION IN THE UNITED STATES
(Supervisory Union, Parish, and District Units are also covered by the term "County")

<i>State</i>	<i>Number of Supervisors in 1953</i>	<i>Supervisors Employed by County, State, or Both</i>	<i>Financed by County, State, or Both</i>	<i>Number of Counties, and Number Supervised</i>		<i>Number of Supervisors in 1929</i>
Alabama	112	County	Both	67	39	53
Arizona	1	County	County	14	1	0
Arkansas	27	District	Both	75	24	6
California	327	Both	Both	58	58	160
Colorado	1	County	County	63	1	0
Connecticut	11	State	State	11	11	28
Delaware	14	State	State	3	3	7
Florida	165	Both	Both	67	67	32
Georgia	175	County	Both	159	159	2
Idaho	12	County	County	44	12	0
Illinois	185	Both	Both	102	102	8
Indiana	16	County	Both	92	16	1
Iowa	29	County	County	99	28	0
Kansas	9	State	State	105	105	4
Kentucky	96	County	County	120	56	0
Louisiana	106	Parish	Both	64	62	24
Maine	4	State	State	16	16	2
Maryland	146	County	Both	23	23	57
Massachusetts	73	State	State	14	14	35
Michigan	45	County	County	83	25	10
Minnesota	12	County	County	87	5	12
Mississippi	83	County	Both	83	70	7
Missouri	0	See explanation		114	0	0
Montana	8	County	County	56	8	0
Nebraska	5	County	County	93	5	0
Nevada	0	See explanation		17		0
New Hampshire	51	State	State & Union	48	48	0
New Jersey	60	State	State	21	18	46
New Mexico	49	County	County	32		0
New York	75	District	District	62	40	1
North Carolina	181	Both	Mainly State	100	92	32

TABLE 6 (Continued)

State	Number of Supervisors in 1953	Supervisors Employed by County, State, or Both	Financed by County, State, or Both	Number of Counties, and Number Supervised		Number of Supervisors in 1929
North Dakota	13	State	State	53	53	11
Ohio	32	County	County	88	32	70
Oklahoma	9	County	County	77	4	3
Oregon	15	County	County	36	10	3
Pennsylvania	84	Both	State	66	66	103
Rhode Island	0			5	0	0
South Carolina	38	Both	Both	46	5	7
South Dakota	2	State	State	67	0	1
Tennessee	139	County	Both	95	90	11
Texas	471	District	State	254	83	19
Utah	42	Local	Both	40	35	20
Vermont	4	State	State	4	4	0
Virginia	218	Both	Both	98	83	51
Washington	24	County	County	39	13	0
West Virginia	139	County	Both	55	55	73
Wisconsin	110	County	State	71	71	109
Wyoming	0	0	0	23	0	0
Totals	3418			3109	1712	1008

Elaboration of the Table

Delaware. The table includes the county positions, 4 supervisors of rural elementary schools, 3 supervisors of music, 3 of art, one of physical education; and 3 state supervisors, in home economics, agriculture, and driver education.

Illinois. Of the 185 supervisors, 102 are at the county level and 83 on the state level. Those at the state level include supervisors of a general nature, health, physical education and safety, transportation, hot lunch, handicapped children, and vocational education.

Kentucky. There are 4 supervisors employed by the state.

Massachusetts. The 73 persons listed are supervisors and directors employed in the State Department of Education and assigned at large to serve the schools of the state.

Missouri. At the state level 15 general supervisors and 10 vocational supervisors are provided to work out into the local districts.

Montana. Legislation providing more county supervisors is pending. The state staff of supervisors do a great deal of work in the various counties by holding institutes, through visitations, and general consultative service.

Nevada. Instead of county supervision, Nevada is divided into five supervision districts with a deputy superintendent of public instruction supervising each. The salaries of the deputies are paid entirely by state funds.

New Hampshire. The districts in this state are unions rather than counties. In a few

TABLE 6 (Continued)

instances the union maintains an instructional leader, known as director of instruction or supervisor.

New Mexico. There are 138 supervisors in New Mexico, 49 in rural districts and 89 in municipal.

Oklahoma. Five of the 9 work out of the State Department.

Oregon. In addition to the county supervisors, the State Department maintains 10 general supervisors at the elementary and secondary school level, 2 in health and physical education, 2 in school buildings, 6 in special education, and 20 in vocational education.

Pennsylvania. The 84 county supervisors listed are assistants to the 66 county superintendents. In addition are 39 supervisors of special education, 34 of agriculture, and 27 of home economics.

Rhode Island. The state does not follow the county system.

South Carolina. Reported to have recently reorganized in the state from 1,600 to approximately 100 school districts, and to be promoting supervision from the district instead of the county level. Figures in table come from a 1950 report from the United States Office of Education.

Texas. Any school district can secure at state expense, 1 supervisor for each 40 classroom teacher units, or a major fraction thereof. Smaller districts within a given county may pool their units to secure such help. Of the 471 supervisors listed, 332 serve under the first arrangement and 139 under the co-operative provision. Besides the 83 counties using the co-operative plan, 141 of the 946 independent school districts have supervisors.

Vermont. The four supervisors listed are helping teachers who work out of the state office.

Virginia. The Virginia figures include 20 cities as well as the 83 counties supervised.

West Virginia. The distribution of the 139 county supervisors is: music, 50; art, 15; industrial and vocational, 7; general, 21; secondary, 3; elementary, 3; reading, 2; penmanship, 3; 4H and rural, 9; speech, hearing, crippled, 7; audio-visual, 4; instruction, 4; guidance, 1; health and physical education, 4; nutrition, 3; publications, 1; and library, 2.

Wisconsin. In addition to the 110 county supervisors, these 19 supervisors work out of the state office at large: 4 high school, 6 elementary, 2 special subjects, 4 special education, 2 librarians, and one curriculum co-ordinator.

THE SERVICES RENDERED

Instruments have not been developed that would measure the great contribution that the county supervisor is bringing to the rural school. The task is rewarding in satisfactions, but at times exacting in the directive which provides for it. For instance, the school code of one state reads:

The supervising teacher shall, under the direction of the county superintendent, supervise and assist the school teachers in the district, devoting special attention to the less experienced teachers; assist in organizing the schools, classifying them according to the work done, and in grading pupils. She shall stimulate interest among the pupils, teachers, and parents

in agriculture and among other subjects pertaining to rural communities and shall consult and advise with school boards.

She shall report weekly to the county superintendent the schools visited, the time spent in each school, the names of school officers she met, the number of pupils enrolled, the number present, her opinion of the order, discipline, grading, and spirit of the school, and such other information as may be required by the county superintendent. When the schools are not in session, she shall visit the homes in her district to promote a general educational interest and to increase her personal knowledge of the rural school, its needs and accomplishments, and report the same to the county superintendent, and shall perform such other work as the superintendent may direct.

She shall attend institutes and conferences called by the state superintendent, but she shall not be reimbursed for expenses incurred in attending such institute until she shall have filed with the county clerk a certificate of attendance signed by the state superintendent.

Any supervising teacher may be discharged for cause by the county superintendent after opportunity shall have been given her to be heard.⁹

Stripped of the formality that characterizes the codification of school operation, within the statement is found the broad ramifications of the rural position. In this case it would seem that visiting teacher may be administrative agent of the county office as well as instructional leader for the teacher. This provision for supervision holds out the hope that:

(1) all activities be conducted by supervisors, superintendents, and teachers working co-operatively toward accepted goals of instruction,

(2) the supervisor be a leader who extends guidance to teachers in their in-service development,

(3) the supervisor continue to study current trends and outstanding educational accomplishments,

(4) a well-planned in-service program provide satisfactory teacher improvement and better pupil learning,

(5) teachers be included in the planning, to assure the highest possible service to each person, and

(6) there be provided an over-all program for attacking teaching problems on a county basis.

The absence of lost motion. These rural supervisors know what it means to offer unsparingly the sum of one's capabilities. What they

⁹ *Handbook for County Supervising Teachers*, 1951. A ten-page bulletin with no indication of the particular state that issued it.

can do is so often limited by the temper and tradition, the will and the ways of the school being served. But in their own way they have a claim to fame. Rural education inches forward year after year, so much so because the supervisor has such an abiding faith in the other fellow. Perhaps in school operation there is no greater feeling of mutual trust than that found in the contacts of county supervisors and teachers.

There is a minimum of lost motion or misguided effort in the movement of a county supervisor from school to school. Perhaps this has a practical explanation.

1. The great variation among the schools visited discourages any attempt to create instructional blueprints to be peddled over the county.

2. Needs among teachers in county schools are seldom trivial, which in turn tends to discourage trivialities in the supervisory service.

3. Distances between schools discourage useless classroom visits. The supervisor is apt to prepare well for the infrequent visit. A city supervisor can reach a dozen teachers in a single building, while a rural supervisor may have to travel miles and miles to reach that many.

4. The atmosphere of the typical school in the county system is one in which there is hardly a chance for the teacher to fear supervision.

5. Opportunities for social relationships among teachers and supervisors help to provide the mutual understanding that results in well-directed supervisory service.

6. Difficulties in calling teachers together for group activities, when they are scattered over a wide area, tend to enhance the importance of the school visit.

How the time is spent. A review of the story of county supervision as recorded in the state and county reports indicate a varied range of activity among supervisors. Leading the list of their activities are these:

Help teachers in classrooms.

Arrange demonstration teaching.

Arrange teacher visitation in other schools.

Confer with individual teachers.

Hold meetings of teachers.

- Confer with school administrators.
- Meet with school boards.
- Speak before parent and community groups.
- Participate in workshops for teachers.
- Plan in-service courses.
- Make home visits.
- Lead curriculum development.
- Improve and select instructional materials.
- Participate in supervisors' organizations, local, state, and national.
- Co-operate with teacher-training institutions.
- Prepare bulletins.
- Conduct testing and evaluation programs.
- Set up experimental programs as research projects.
- Handle routine office duties.
- Help in the recruitment and selection of teachers.
- Help in the adoption of textbooks.
- Co-operate with other community agencies interested in children and youth.
- Address meetings.
- Attend conventions of supervisors.
- Conduct surveys bearing on instructional programs.
- Help in the development of school policies.
- Take the lead in preparing and publishing resource materials and teaching guides.
- Provide consultative services.
- Serve school accrediting agencies.
- Serve as public relations officer.

In San Diego County, California, the co-ordinators of secondary education—supervisors—reported these as typical of their activities:

1. Participated in conferences on proposed legislation affecting the curriculum.
2. Did liaison work with various institutions of higher learning concerning problems of teacher recruitment.
3. Taught summer session classes and helped with workshops in their area.
4. Cooperated with the State Department of Motor Vehicles in their driver educational program.
5. Served as educational consultants to certain business and industrial conferences.
6. Took part in planning for school participation in radio programs.
7. Prepared bulletins announcing contests sponsored by civic groups.
8. Addressed many community and educational groups.
9. Served on various boards and committees concerned with the public welfare, such as the Social Hygiene Association.
10. Wrote for educational journals.

11. Planned and participated in district and county educational workshops.¹⁰

In *Montgomery County, Maryland*, the central core of supervisory service is considered to be improving methods of learning of children. Involved in the work of the supervisor are these activities:

Doing research necessary for determining best methods.

Working with principals and teachers in establishing the method approach for the various subjects.

Assisting principals in interpreting with community leaders the importance and place of method in the program of education.

Working with classroom teachers on specific methods appropriate to the subject.

Assisting the principal in developing with teachers an understanding of the influence and place of promotions of children.

Helping principals in establishing with teachers methods of reporting achievements of children to parents.

Helping principals and teachers in building the techniques for parent conferences.

Helping principals and teachers plan for the effective use of materials of instruction.

Promoting the building of good human relations at every stage of child maturity.

Helping teachers establish the use of the democratic process.

Helping identify the understandings, generalizations, and substance which make up the content of the unit or topic, at the same time identifying the skills to be developed and the degree of mastery suitable for the age group.

Improving method through in-service training of teachers by helping the principal provide opportunities for: visits to other classes, conference meetings with teachers, demonstrations, child study programs, suggested readings, and faculty meetings with supervisor participating.

Helping principals select and use standardized tests.

Helping principals organize classes for remedial teaching.

Addressing parent meetings.

Planning for visitors to the County.

Consulting with principals regarding the services of teachers in the building.

Accepting obligations in conferences and programs of education.

Building community relationships helpful to the educational program.

Providing for practice teachers assigned to the County.¹¹

¹⁰ M. E. Mushlitz and others, "Report of the Committee on the Survey of County Curriculum Coordination in California," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, 22: 114-119 (February, 1947).

¹¹ Montgomery County, Maryland, Public Schools, *Administrative Handbook* (September, 1951), pp. 8-10.

Highly significant in this list of services are the frequent references to helping the principals as well as the teachers. It indicates close co-operation between the field administrator and the supervisor in matters calling for instructional leadership.

In the State of Florida, the chief purpose of supervision in the counties is accepted as providing expert technical services to teachers, principals, and county superintendents to assist them in bringing about improvements in the curriculum and teaching services. It involves a wide range of activities, including these services to the various school personnel with whom the county supervisor works:

Services to the Individual Teacher—

1. Assisting in securing materials of instruction.
2. Conferring with the teacher on problems concerning improvement of teaching techniques.
3. Helping build better working relationships with fellow teachers.
4. Acquiring new teachers with county policies and total county educational program.
5. Assisting in planning teaching and resource units.
6. Observing teaching procedures and assisting in discovering ways to improve work.
7. Assisting in planning daily schedules of work.
8. Arranging, in conference with principal, for visitation to other schools for the purpose of observing excellent teaching practices.
9. Bringing teacher problems to the attention of the principal and county superintendent.
10. Acquainting teachers with good practices and new teaching trends observed elsewhere.
11. Assisting in securing consultants in special fields.
12. Advising the teachers of teacher retirement plans and policies.
13. Assisting teachers in problems of securing teaching certificates, extension or higher ranks.
14. Assisting in administering and interpreting standardized tests.
15. Assisting in planning for homeroom programs and other phases of pupil guidance.
16. Planning for organization of extension classes.
17. Acquainting teachers with the services offered by the county professional materials bureau and making plans for better use of it.
18. Being a friend and resource person to the teacher.
19. Organizing study groups for educational improvement.

Services to the School Principal—

1. Planning with the principal for classroom visitation.
2. Assisting the principal in fulfilling his responsibilities for discovering ways of improving teaching procedures of his teachers.

3. Serving as resource person for faculty meetings.
4. Assisting principals in securing teachers in filling vacancies.
5. Working with teacher groups in correlating work in various subject areas.
6. Acquainting principals with new textbook adoptions.
7. Assisting in securing instructional materials.
8. Assisting principal in planning a program of in-service education for the faculty, post-school and pre-school conferences, and summer programs.
9. Bringing to the attention of the superintendent and school board the needs of the principal.
10. Helping develop better working relationships between schools.
11. Assisting in formulation of policies.
12. Securing consultants for special work with teachers.
13. Assisting in special faculty studies.
14. Assisting in planning schedule of classes and adjusting teacher-pupil loads.
15. Assisting in preparing for school evaluation and accreditation.
16. Planning with principal for teacher visitation to other schools.
17. Assisting with local public relations program.
18. Assisting in placement of intern teachers.
19. Bringing to principals materials on recent findings and new trends in education.

Services to the County Superintendent—

1. Assisting in planning a total education program for the county. Florida law requires that county superintendents plan and project a long-time program for the study and improvement of the education in the county. Supervisors are the chief source of technical assistance provided for this purpose.
2. Working with principals and teachers in the formulation of county policies needed.
3. Working with teacher groups and committees in developing curriculum guides and programs of study.
4. Acquainting schools with good practices and teaching procedures.
5. Assisting in securing consultants for small groups or county-wide study groups.
6. Working closely with the State Department of Education, colleges, and universities on educational programs, and in the field of teacher education.
7. Assisting in organizing extension classes and study groups whereby teachers and principals may improve their professional qualifications.
8. Assisting in developing public relations programs and compiling materials for it.
9. Assisting in filling emergency vacancies.
10. Requisitioning and planning for efficient use of state textbooks.

11. Organizing county professional library and materials bureau and getting needed materials out to the various schools in the county.
12. Assisting schools in preparation and checking for accuracy of all school personnel reports, accreditation, and attendance reports.
13. Assisting in co-ordinating county educational program with total school program.
14. Representing the county at state and regional educational conferences.
15. Serving on state-wide educational committees.¹²

The Florida State Department of Education acts as a hub of professional co-ordination for the activities of the 165 county supervisors in the state. It has not been willing to confine its efforts to securing the legislative apportionment of supervisory personnel for the counties. It works for the professional advancement of the staff out in the field.

Similarity of service. Noted in the four lists just presented is a great similarity in the services rendered and the activities engaged in by county supervisors from Maryland to California. The duplication from list to list has been retained here to enable the reader to judge for himself any similarity of approach to instructional leadership.

County bulletins. Common in county school management is the monthly bulletin issued to the schools by the central office. Usually mimeographed, it acts as a link between the supervisory hub and the miscellaneous classrooms scattered out on the rim. It has long since been accepted as a necessary service.

Such a bulletin is the *Kingfisher County Teacher*, issued monthly to the schools in that Oklahoma county: Dover, Booker T. Washington, Omega, Big Four, Lacy, Dunbar, Kingfisher, Douglass, Hennessey, Loyal, Cashion, Okarche, and Pilot Ridge. A few of the issues reveal items such as these:

1. An article treating "Motor Learning."
2. An outline of preferred audio-visual education procedures.
3. An article on "The Developmental Approach" in instruction.
4. Information about how to secure matching funds from the state for local audio-visual programs.

¹² Sam H. Moorer, *Supervision: the Keystone to Educational Progress* (Tallahassee: Florida State Department of Education, 1952), pp. 2-4. Adapted from a list prepared by the supervisory staff of Lake County, under the leadership of Donald Allen.

5. Lists of films available from the county office.
6. Announcements of a county fine arts festival for all schools.
7. Information about the county-wide testing program.

There has been much controversy about the merits of supervisory bulletins. It can always be said that they are not substitutes for direct school supervisory contacts. They are not an invitation for supervisory officials to spend more and more time in an office turning out more and more mimeographed bulletins. They have their necessary place in school operation, and county school offices can profit by their careful use. Perhaps they serve their best function as a correlating instrument.

BEGINNING SUPERVISORS

That hindsight is better than foresight has no doubt been discovered too late by some instructional helpers. A group of county workers have prepared from their own experience this list of guideposts for the beginning supervisor:

1. Set up objectives and make careful plans in terms of each situation, guided by the over-all county plans, objectives, and philosophy. Make a flexible plan, which is part of a long-time program.
2. Establish friendly relationships.
3. Keep yourself free to work with everyone.
4. Help each teacher to feel adequate.
5. Include the teacher in all planning.
6. Be direct in your help and suggestions.
7. There are times when you don't wait to be asked for help.
8. Emphasize next steps rather than past procedures.
9. When a teacher asks for help try to make your help go a long way by pointing out the basic educational principle involved.
10. Always do what you promise to do.
11. Be master of the situation. Be sure of your own educational philosophy and let it guide you in a crisis. The teachers will feel your strength of purpose.¹³

The beginning supervisor is frequently younger than many of the teachers to be helped. Consequently his years of teaching experience are fewer. This in itself is not a deterrent to success. Only when the supervisor is unfitted for the job will age be discredited in

¹³ Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, *The Rural Supervisor at Work*, Yearbook (Washington, D. C., the Department, 1949), p. 153.

the end. Naturally there are some teachers, and some schools, more receptive to instructional leadership than others. When time is limited, it is quite natural for the beginning supervisor to fall into action with those teachers and those schools most receptive of his efforts. This is to be expected. Furthermore, it promises early success, and success breeds more success.

Once the county supervisor loses himself in the co-operative undertakings that make up supervisory programs, then he is in a position to realize the truth of the statement: supervision is a function carried on by many people, in many ways, at many different times, in many different places. There should be one or more persons whose primary responsibility is to make it possible for supervision to take place. Everything that takes place, and everyone who helps things to take place to help children grow, becomes a part of supervision.¹⁴

Just a few of the typical county services rendered, and the typical procedures followed, are included in the remainder of the chapter.

ESTABLISHING A NEW PROGRAM

In Texas, by state provision and support, one supervisor is allotted for the first block of 40 teaching units (teacher-classroom groups) in a county and one additional supervisor for each additional block of 50 units, with no credit for fractions. Houston County is an example of a county with no single system large enough to qualify for a supervisor. Likewise, it is an example of how local school systems of their own accord pool their teaching units to secure supervisory aid. The three larger school systems unselfishly joined forces with the nine small to provide two supervisors to work on a county-wide basis.¹⁵

The injection of this new supervisory program followed these steps:

1. The co-operative agreement among the local school systems to pool their instructional rights for the employment of two county supervisors.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 12.

¹⁵ Thomas Murray and Harry Bradley, "Group-Centered Supervision," *The Nations Schools*, 46:3 (September, 1950), pp. 62-64.

2. The joint selection of the supervisors.
3. Conferences of supervisors with various school people such as county superintendent and local school administrators.
4. Appearance of new personnel at each school, to become acquainted with teachers and administrators. Attendance at pre-school faculty meetings and assurance of a supervisory program to assist teachers and administrators in doing better those phases of the school program concerned with instruction.
5. Repeated emphasis that "the supervisors were not there to impose rules, regulations, courses of study, predetermined subject matter outlines, standardized teaching methods, or any of the other bugaboos commonly laid at the supervisor's door."
6. Collection of instructional materials by supervisors, including free and inexpensive material, to be made available to teachers.
7. Supervisors' recording of all problems discussed with teachers and administrators.
8. Co-operative program among schools in self-evaluation of instruction, with help of the supervisors.
9. Consultant in reading instruction provided from the outside to demonstrate teaching of reading, since this was the number one interest among teachers.
10. Expansion of audio-visual materials program.
11. Provision for school broadcasts at the local radio station.
12. Help in developing a testing program in one particular high school.
13. Extension and improvement of library service in one high school.
14. Increased student participation in school activities was brought about in a third school.
15. Movement to place the school as the center of community life in another school district, a community fair being typical of the activities that were served by the school plant.
16. Survey of teacher opinion handled at the end of the first year to determine the effectiveness of the supervisory program and to secure suggestions for the new year.

A supervisory clinic. Co-operative ventures in instructional leadership seem to be common in Texas. Haskew of the University, tells

of a clinic held by five neighboring school systems for the purpose of properly utilizing a new state-adopted set of basal readers.¹⁶ The host school was willing to put its current procedures in teaching reading up for observation and discussion.

In the clinic twelve representatives from each of the other schools spent a day in organized observations of procedures in the host system. They saw teaching, and examined tests and teaching materials. They heard objectives and methods described. They talked with pupils, teachers, and parents. This was followed by a group conference treating the program. Experiences were exchanged, implications traced, suggestions made. A summarizing panel drew together recommendations and possibilities. Then the meeting broke down into five groups, each school drawing together its own conclusions.

TRAINING NEW SUPERVISORS

The extension of rural supervision that has come rapidly in the past two decades has brought with it the demand for supervisors. Many states have not left this supply to chance, but for some years have taken systematic steps to train for supervisory posts. The story of the Georgia program is one of the more impressive.¹⁷

The study-work program for the preparation of supervisors for Georgia's rural schools is designed to provide county school leaders qualified to stimulate rural teachers to use improved materials and techniques in public school instructional programs. Successful rural school teachers are selected by a committee of educational leaders and are encouraged to prepare for this type of leadership. The program of training is under the guidance of an advisory committee appointed by the Georgia Teacher Education Council. This committee is composed of four members of the University of Georgia staff, two members from the Georgia State Department of Education, one member from the faculty of West Georgia College, and one from the staff of Georgia State College for Women. A director and two assistants are responsible for the administration of the program.

¹⁶ L. D. Haskew, "Educational Clinics," *Educational Leadership*, 6:3 (December, 1948), pp. 146-148.

¹⁷ As reported in the 1947 Yearbook of the Department of Rural Education, *On-the-Job Education in Rural Communities* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association), pp. 53-56.

The prospective supervisors spend twelve weeks during the summer at the University of Georgia projecting themselves into the task of supervision which they will actually begin the coming fall. With the help of consultants from the University of Georgia, West Georgia College, Georgia State College for Women, and the Georgia State Department of Education, these prospective supervisors study the purposes of leadership in rural areas; good leader competencies; typical teaching problems; sociology, human growth, and development; and relationships with teachers, superintendents, parents, children, and others concerned with the improvement of life in a rural community. They study teaching materials and equipment, such as textbooks, library books, audio-visual aids, and some instruments of evaluation in education. They study psychology in an effort to get a better understanding of the processes in education.

Among the most important of the competencies of good leadership that are studied are the abilities to do co-operative planning with children, teachers, principals, and patrons. For this reason the study experiences in the summer include emphasis on learning how to direct co-operative planning. The university consultants use techniques of co-operative planning insofar as possible so that the prospective supervisors will actually experience the effects of this type of planning in their own training programs.

The prospective supervisors accept positions in county supervision in the fall after they have completed the preliminary seminar training program. They are referred to as cadet or apprentice supervisors and are granted provisional certificates in supervision by the Georgia State Department of Education. Their training continues on the job under the direction of consultants employed for this purpose by the University of Georgia and the Georgia State Department of Education. A consultant visits each cadet in her area about once each month for a one- or two-day period. Help is also secured upon request from near-by colleges and from experienced county and state school supervisors. Credit toward a Master of Education degree may be earned by the cadet supervisor to the extent of fifteen quarter hours for the year's experience.

After a year of practice in supervision, the cadets assemble once more at the University of Georgia for another full summer of study. At the close of the second summer, each successful candidate is granted a professional certificate in supervision. During the prospec-

tive supervisor's year as an apprentice, on-the-job study activities are carried on in a variety of ways. These include individual conferences about problems which a supervisor presents to the consultant; visits to experienced supervisors in other counties; meetings with principals or teachers, with the consultant either visiting or taking the lead, depending upon requests from the persons involved; consultant assuming leadership of or assisting a cadet supervisor in leading a community meeting; consultant visiting schools with the cadet supervisor for the purpose of studying needs, demonstrating supervisory practices, or helping to evaluate practices of the cadet supervisor; and group meetings with other cadet supervisors at Georgia State College for Women, West Georgia College, and the Georgia State Department of Education. At least one week in the fall and another in the winter or spring are spent at college centers for the purpose of broadening the cadet supervisor's understanding of her job.

Each year, the cadet supervisors spend a week of study at Georgia State College for Women, and another week at West Georgia College. Supervisors study under the direction of selected members of the college staffs. They observe in demonstration schools, and visit some of the outstanding community schools in the counties where the colleges are located. They see, for example, how good teachers help children to attack actual health problems. They see teachers demonstrating their understanding of human development by the way they work with the children. A third week away from the practice area is spent visiting and assisting experienced supervisors in the state.

Many other individual and group activities are included in this training program as the cadet supervisors themselves see the need. These include visits to some of the best schools in the South, the organization of small study groups, participation in state and national meetings, conferences between the university consultant and the cadet supervisor, and school visitation by the two.

THE UNIQUE FUNCTION OF A COUNTY SUPERVISOR

When there is provision made for county supervision, the responsibility is so often given to one position. The function of such an office is broad and unique to American education. The following

might be considered as a cross-section description of this position.¹⁸

She works with all teachers of all schools in planning, on committees, in the in-service training program, selecting and using professional materials, and in classroom visitations. Most of the visits are with elementary teachers, probably because they are "more ready for supervision" and make more requests for help.

The supervisor is responsible to the superintendent and the Board of Education for improvement of instruction in the county and for helping interpret the school program. She is a resource person available at request of the teacher or principal. Her function is to implement the instructional program and not to supersede the principal in the school.

On the county-wide level, she works with the planning committee and group leaders and attempts to co-ordinate the work of the entire personnel. Because of her broad experience in all of the schools, she acquires an over-all picture of the total school situation and can assist in evaluating and developing long-term goals and specific objectives pertinent to the group. Efforts are made to encourage the exchange of good ideas and to pool the resources of teachers throughout the system. She helps in discovering and developing leadership among teachers and principals and in using that leadership effectively in carrying forward the total school program.

In working with individual schools, she attends faculty meetings and local study groups, helps identify problems and discover ways of solving them, and assists in developing criteria and techniques for evaluating the school program. Professional books and magazines for use in the individual school program are often supplied through her recognition of needs.

One of the big responsibilities of the supervisor is that of building morale and developing good relationships among teachers, principals, children, and parents. Her relationship with these groups is that of guidance, counseling, and co-operation. She is responsible for making the county program a functional part of the state program and for interpreting the state program to local school faculties.

Individual conferences with all the new teachers are held before

¹⁸ The position taken as an example here is that of the one supervisor—Supervisor of Instruction—in Escambia County, Alabama, as described to the writer by Ethel Holmes of that post.

the opening of school, to facilitate the beginning of their year's work. Brief visits to every school are made as soon as possible after school opens. The pattern for such a visit includes talking with each teacher, helping them with individual problems, and working with the principal and teachers on the individual school program. Thus the work represents a balance between serving individuals and serving a group.

This round of visits is followed by intensive work with a few experienced teachers, getting some places ready so that other teachers may visit them. Visiting schedules are arranged and carried out. The supervisor then follows up these visits as soon as possible with the teachers making them.

Much of the supervisor's time is spent in trying to encourage and keep up morale. A little professional mortar here and there, wielded in every school call, does much to provide unity to a school or to a school system. Also a great deal of the time is spent in finding materials and getting them to the places where they are needed. One of her problems is that of developing instructional leadership, particularly with principals. But perhaps the county supervisor's biggest challenge is that of budgeting her time in order to distribute it most wisely. There are so many calls, and so many things demanding attention, it is indeed difficult to decide which is most important.

LOOKING AHEAD

The past two decades have brought a tremendous growth to county supervision. The number of supervisors has increased over 200 per cent since 1929, which represents only a partial indication of the advance of the program. The fact that so much of this increased expenditure for instructional leadership came during the 1930-1940 depression decade might indicate that better supervisory times are still ahead for county schools. This conclusion hardly follows. It is well known that the sharp increase in the cost of living in recent years has made the school tax dollar less valuable. More school revenue now usually means higher salaries for existing positions rather than the creation of new ones.

The remainder of this decade may very well present county supervision with the task of holding the present personnel line rather than the opportunity to extend it. If this is so, it means that administrative energies must be extended in the direction of refining

the present supervisory program. Efficiency of operation is always a challenge. A supervisor in the budget is worth two in the administrative dream. There is no comparison between the worth of one supervisor who follows the findings of educational research and two who peddle ineffective instructional procedures and outmoded curricula.

For Further Consideration

As far as responsibilities for instruction are concerned, does the office of county superintendent differ greatly from the office of city superintendent? Are the obstacles to instructional improvement more apparent in the case of one of these two positions than in the case of the other? Is it true that there is less chance for lost motion in the work of the county supervisor than in the case of the city supervisor? What are the advantages that each of the two has over the other in carrying out a good supervisory program? Should county supervisors give any type of service to local school systems which provide some supervisory positions on their own? How can a county superintendent determine when the total number of supervisors is appropriate for the job to be done?

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13

Classrooms Deserve Attention

THE journals of American education have carried the obituary of autocratic supervision. When the autopsy is performed, no doubt it will be revealed that death resulted from natural causes, the main one being an inability to adapt itself to a changing environment. The warmth and mutual confidence that permeate today's classroom give no comfort to the cold-blooded, inspectorial visitation that was prevalent earlier in this century. Nobody mourned its passing. In fact, as pointed out in earlier sections of this book, the tide of discontent was beginning to engulf both supervisor and supervised as early as two decades ago. And when the old autocrat of the classroom finally passed from the scene, it was amidst a general shower of condemnation.

THE DANGER OF CLASSROOM NEGLECT

But today the classroom faces a danger as great as the one that is gone. Whereas earlier teachers felt the frustration of a highly mechanical and inspectional classroom supervision, teachers today face the danger of receiving little or no classroom supervision whatsoever. Tendencies in this direction can be accounted for as follows:

1. *The legacy of the earlier fault-finding pattern.* Autocratic supervision was never popular, but it was commonly exercised because it was considered the professional thing to do. The educator's literature that followed World War I tells the story. Teachers expected to be visited periodically, to have their work inspected, to be called into a conference, and to be told exactly what was wrong. Supervisors, either principal or special official, expected to find some-

thing wrong, for such a discovery was considered to be evidence of their fitness for the post. This procedure became so distasteful before it was discredited that both parties were glad to be freed of it. So strongly tainted with autocracy was this early pattern that classroom visitation of any sort lost ground with the passing of the tyrant.

2. *The search for a new supervisory program.* Making its debut behind the banner of democratic school administration, the new concept of supervision by-passed the classroom in search of wholesome outlets of supervisory effort. Although the earlier program had been centered in the actions and attitudes of the individual teacher in his classroom habitat, the new concept was nursed in the group meeting, with its inherent possibilities for democratic participation. Teachers were called from their classrooms to engage in co-operative programs such as curriculum planning, in-service study courses, and demonstrations of instruction. The one responsible for supervision has only so much time at his disposal, and the attention given to setting the stage for this type of instructional improvement naturally diverts all or part of his time from actual classroom participation.

3. *The in-service training of supervisors.* There is no group more active professionally than supervisors. Besides their national organization, there is invariably the state organization and often a county group affiliation. Not only is it common for a supervisor to attend two or three professional conferences during the school year, but participation in a summer workshop is often a part of his yearly activity. In this study of his work, it is no longer popular procedure to follow a formal program studded with speakers. Instead, his bond of sympathy seems to be with the small discussion group providing co-operative action on a common problem. It is the workshop technique that has captured the fancy of today's supervisor, and there is apparent its direct carry-over from the supervisors' state or national conference to the program of supervision back in the local school district. Thus it may be said that supervisors—as a professional group—of late have shied away from speeches, from the very idea of one person standing up to tell another what he should be doing. If they have hesitated to go into the classroom to tell the teacher what is right or wrong, what is promising or of doubtful value, it is in part a reflection of their own professional up-bringing.

4. *The economy of time.* Even in its heyday, classroom supervision was handicapped by the lack of personnel. Seldom were there enough supervisors to go around. To those who worked at the task of covering the classrooms there was always the hopelessness of not completing the rounds. Consequently, once it was officially approved, supervisors jumped at the chance to work with teachers in groups. It represented an economy of time.

5. *The shifting of supervisory titles.* During the peak of inspectional supervision, the line-and-staff pattern of school operation was distinguished by the simplicity of titles in both the line and the staff. In most school districts these could be counted on one hand: the teacher, the principal, the supervisor, and the superintendent. All the staff officers usually bore the title of supervisor, and reflected the common concept of supervision being a program having to do with the observation of classroom instruction.

Today the staff officers bear a variety of titles, including not only supervisor but such titles as co-ordinator, director, and curriculum director. This tendency represents something more than a chance shifting of titles; it reflects the shifting of the concept of what constitutes the program of instructional improvement, as was reviewed in points 2 and 3 above.

In many school districts the one who carries the responsibility for classroom supervision carries the title of helping teacher, the change in name representing an attempt to overcome the inspectional interpretation of earlier supervision and consequently to make supervision more acceptable to teachers. In this chapter this pattern of acceptability is sought. The points pertain to both elementary and secondary schools.

THE CASE FOR CLASSROOM VISITATION

Perhaps supervisory theory has never intended to mark the classroom as out of bounds. Perhaps it has been unwittingly by-passed in the current period because of chance factors such as those just reviewed. Any school system needs to include classroom visitation as a basic feature of its program of instructional leadership. There are a number of factors that make this so.

The classroom is the heart of the teaching situation. It is the center of instruction, and it is natural for it to be a center of supervisory

attention. Supervision is to be developed out of it rather than forced upon it from the outside.

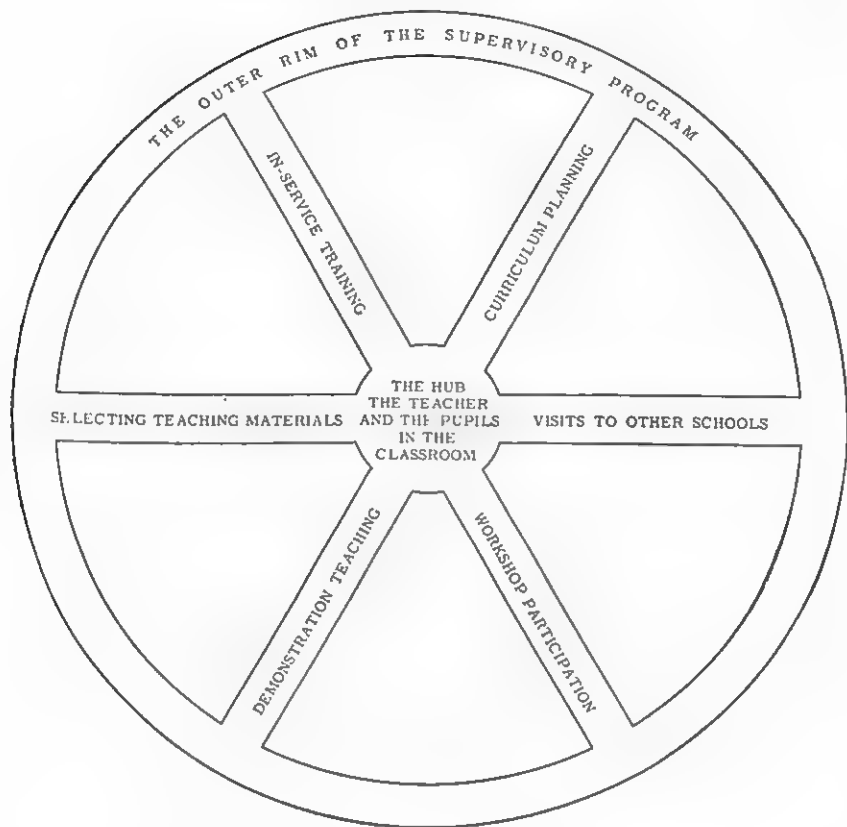
Teachers exert the major portion of their effectiveness within the four walls of the classroom. It is true that they move in and out of their rooms with their children to auditoriums, playyards, activity rooms, and points of interest in the community. However, for the country as a whole it is a conservative estimate that three fourths to seven eighths of their time with pupils is spent within the classroom.

For the past two decades it has been common to bring teachers together for in-service activities such as curriculum planning or the study of teaching techniques. The effectiveness of such endeavor is tested in the work of the teacher with the pupil. The success of such programs is dependent upon supervisory follow-up in the classrooms. In fact, this present period of teachers' group participation in curriculum planning marks supervisory visitation as more essential than ever before. *A good supervisory program grows out of the classroom and returns to enrich it.*

Classroom visitation comes about naturally, as a follow-up of instructional planning. There is none of the compulsion of the former period of classroom supervision. The focus of attention is upon the program being developed, not upon the teacher as a personality. The teacher as an individual grows in the process. This approach does not minimize the importance of the teacher, who is still appreciated as the most important feature in the teaching situation. It is a supervisory approach that is less personal than its forbears.

Teaching guides and instructional materials developed in committee meetings or workshops find their use and their test in the classroom. It is the same with how-to-do courses such as an in-service course in art techniques. School systems that have busied themselves for some time in setting up these group programs are now appreciating the necessity of again sharing this supervisory personnel with the classroom.

Many of us remember how, when we were children, the first snowfall always brought with it the resurrection of the popular game of fox and geese. The wagon wheel pattern was laid out in the snow with the all-important hub as the home base, the center of the entire movement. That pattern serves us well in thinking about the relationship to the classroom of all our modern in-service activi-



ties. The supervisor can skate all around the rim of the wheel as in fox and geese, but he must remember that the hub, where everything comes together, around which everything must revolve, is the classroom teaching situation where a teacher works with a group of pupils. It is the hub of the supervisory program. It is the heart of the school.

WORKING WITH THE INDIVIDUAL TEACHER

It was pointed out in Chapter 8 that in any well-organized supervisory program there are two distinct forces. They represent two somewhat different approaches to the objective, improvement of instruction. They are both highly essential. They are advanced side by side with no need of conflict. One is the attack upon a broad front, the year-to-year continuous improvement of the curriculum

or the teaching conditions. The other is the concentration upon a very limited sector, such as an individual teacher's classroom. They both call for classroom supervision, but the latter is a more individualized process. At times it almost approximates trouble-shooting. As it gets down to the immediate needs of individual teachers, there is invariably the danger of a recurrence of the old inspectatorial visitation. Does the danger outrun the capacity of school leadership to give teachers the kind of help that they appreciate?

The beginning teacher. Most states and local systems are short of supervisory personnel. Much of the classroom visitation that is centered in the work of individual teachers is likely to be devoted to beginners. Such supervision does not begin with the premise that an inexperienced teacher cannot teach. Those beginners who have been fully trained appreciate the opportunity to be accepted as able to handle the situation. Their early needs deal with such matters as the routines of the local system, the background of the classes to be handled, and a knowledge of the materials available. The least of their desires is an overanxious supervisor with the attitude that the new teacher needs help in managing the situation.

It is true that in many sections of the country classrooms are being manned each fall by teachers with emergency credentials. The continued growth in school populations is matched with a tardy program of teacher training. The shortage of teachers will get worse before any improvement sets in. This situation makes classroom supervision all the more imperative.

Supervision takes into consideration the backgrounds of new teachers before offering services. If the teacher has come in with limited training, then the staff leader starts back closer to the point at which the campus trainer would have started. The beginner demands orientation, early guidance and encouragement, and regular contacts with the supervisory staff. The latter may include meetings or workshops to which a number of beginners may bring their experiences for consideration, but it must include some direct classroom attention.

In these visits the helpful supervisor is the one trained to see not just the teacher, but the whole situation: the children, the underlying program rather than the brief action of the moment, and above all the good that is there. There are shortcomings in the classroom of

any beginning teacher. Supervision is not searching for these. On the basis of his successful practices the teacher will move to success in other areas of operation. Approval is a powerful stimulant to the forces of self-help. The ability to communicate confidence often serves the supervisor better than the ability to communicate an idea.

Classroom control is often a bugaboo to a new teacher, a problem that cannot await further course work. This is a difficulty that is expected by an experienced staff leader. It presents an opportunity to establish himself as one who can be of some service.

The supervisor does not supersede the teacher. He may help, but he doesn't take over in the sense of an emergency maneuver. Even in the case of the weak beginner, at any grade level, there must be no indication to the pupils that the teacher is having to relinquish his position. Should this become necessary, it is quite possible that the teacher cannot be salvaged for that classroom. In a large city, such as San Francisco, the beginning teacher who stumbles in an early assignment in one school is in most instances saved for the profession by adjustment in a school in another neighborhood.

As stated elsewhere in the book, the busy supervisor is tempted to pass up the classrooms of the experienced teachers in serving the beginners. It must be noted that the average experienced teacher feels slighted if on a tour of the building the supervisor neglects his room.

DEMONSTRATION TEACHING

Supervision's beginning this century was for the purpose of helping teachers in their classrooms. The supervisor was looked upon as a superteacher who could help those not so gifted. A natural technique was demonstration teaching, in which the supervisor would take over the class while the regular teacher looked on. At times another teacher or two from other rooms would come in to watch. Then one day an efficient supervisor had the idea that teachers from other schools might look on at the same time.

Out of this grew the various ramifications of demonstration teaching. Supervisors developed the practice of having outstanding teachers demonstrate for others. Today a competent supervisor recognizes competent classroom instruction and utilizes the services of such teachers in the work with others. Visitation is an off-shoot

of this and is in a sense a feature of demonstration teaching. When one teacher goes to observe another at work, in a sense the latter is demonstrating her procedures.

In their eagerness to make known to others the work of good teachers, at times supervisors set up demonstration situations that are a bit artificial, with the accompanying loss of the original instructional qualities. The list that follows represents an attempt to bring out some of the principles of good demonstration teaching.

1. The more effective demonstrations are those held in the regular classrooms of the children being used. To move the class means a loss of the true instructional setting and consequent accumulation of dramatic or showmanship features.

2. The work presented should be as natural as possible, with a minimum of rehearsal on the part of the pupils.

3. The room should not be crowded with observers. The group should be small enough to protect the teaching-learning situation.

4. The supervisor should not try to cover too much in one demonstration. It is better to treat a limited phase of a teacher's plan or program than to neglect details in an attempt to cover a greater number of aspects of the work.

5. Demonstrations, or visitation among teachers, call for careful direction by those in supervisory capacity. For an inexperienced or weak teacher to wander in and out of the classrooms of good teachers without preplanning is a waste of the time of all concerned.

6. Outstanding teachers and schools must be protected against an overburden of visitors. The school system that works at the job of spreading its demonstrations—its visiting—among more classrooms develops more teachers in the long run. Teachers grow through such responsibility.

7. Losses must be measured against gains in any program. The education of children should not suffer because of demonstration work.

8. The teacher's observation of the classroom instruction of others cannot be forced. Opportunities rather than requirements should govern the program. There should be a plan whereby a teacher may request the chance to visit.

9. Exhibitionism has no place in a demonstration plan. Observers should be able to see the program that is characteristic of the school.

10. For the sake of protection of the work in the classrooms visited, it is well to schedule small groups of teachers for such rooms rather than to permit teachers to come individually. Twenty teachers scheduled to a room in two groups of ten each means much less strain on the teaching-learning situation than twenty coming individually on that many days.

11. Programs of demonstrations or visiting set up by the supervisors of the various fields in a large system need to be co-ordinated. This necessity of co-ordination of effort was discussed at length in Chapters 7 and 8.

There is nothing old-fashioned about demonstration teaching in a supervisory program. From the point of view of the one receiving the help it is observation, and the observation of the good work of other teachers is a sound practice in teacher training that begins in the undergraduate school and continues throughout the professional career of a teacher.

WHY BEGINNERS FAIL

Many techniques of classroom supervision have been carried over from a period when the recitation was the one accepted classroom procedure, from a period when supervision's main attention was upon the recitation. Consequently, today we must guard against supervisory techniques that have little if any bearing upon a modern classroom. There is always the challenge to recognize the true relationship of means and ends.

Supervisors through experience learn the pitfalls of early teaching. To their own background they can add the story as recorded in the periodicals of the profession. For instance, a typical group of 125 new teachers after a year on the job combined their thinking to give these suggestions to the new teacher:

Be firm but fair from the beginning.

Know your pupils.

Plan your work carefully.

Observe other teachers.

Don't hesitate to ask questions.

Be friendly with other teachers.

Be calm.

Be prompt with clerical work.

Start slowly.

- Get to school early.
- Establish routines.
- Collect materials for later use.
- Be consistent.
- Be patient.
- Use pleasant voice.
- Read professional literature.
- Don't do clerical work in class.
- Accept and apply suggestions.¹

The first three points were emphasized as the main reasons for early difficulties. The experienced supervisor can interpret in action what is meant by the theory that the teacher needs to be, and can be, firm, fair, and friendly all at the same time. Many a teacher begins with a reluctance to be firm for fear of not being liked by the pupils. There is a certain security to a pupil at any grade level in a classroom in which the teacher assumes this responsibility. The ability of the teacher to secure the immediate attention of the group is an essential to classroom management. This does not denote a taskmaster any more than it does a teacher who believes in democratic planning.

Some students of school operation have been careful to distinguish between the service provided inexperienced teachers and that offered the experienced. Reeder is one who has been careful to point out differences in the approach. He summarizes his point with this statement:

It will be admitted that inexperienced teachers may not know when they need help, and that the supervisor ought, therefore, to visit their classrooms frequently, with or without their invitations. Some of these visits will be of the formal type followed by a supervisory conference; some will be brief and informal. If the right supervisory relationship is established at once, some of these visits will be the result of the invitation of the new teacher; but the supervisor should not feel that he should wait for such an invitation. Knowing he is new to his work, the inexperienced teacher who has been imbued with a true professional spirit in the teacher-training institution from which he has been graduated will feel no resentment if an experienced professional counselor makes an unannounced supervisory visit. If the young teacher does not have this professional spirit, he should not remain in the profession.

A different situation obtains, however, with the experienced teacher. A supervisor should not enter the classroom of such a teacher for a

¹"Spotlight on Inducting New Teachers," New York City bulletin, *Curriculum and Materials*, Vol. 5, No. 1, p. 3. By permission of the Board of Education of the City of New York.

formal supervisory visit except on the invitation of the teacher. The grounds on which this statement is based are as follows:

1. Improvement of the artistic, non-repetitive process of teaching must be the result of a desire on the part of the teacher for improvement.
2. If a teacher does not want a supervisory visit not only will the time be wasted, but the teacher is likely to show his resentment in his treatment of the pupils when the supervisor is not present, and the children will suffer.²

He further points out that teachers in general eagerly welcome help and the supervisor will receive more invitations than he can handle. Furthermore, the experienced teacher has at hand many other supervisory means of improving instruction besides classroom visitation.

CLASSROOM SERVICE

There have been many surveys of teachers' opinions about classroom supervision. Invariably there has been included the question: do you want more supervision in the classroom? Writers often point out that teachers don't want to be visited. Such polls of teacher opinion have meant little to the student of American school operation. Teachers' replies are based on their own conception of supervision. This is colored by their limited experience with administrators and supervisors who have visited their classrooms. Practice has shown that teachers appreciate co-operative services in the instructional area, including visits to their classrooms.

Many a supervisor or principal first has to break down a false conception of the nature of classroom service. The teacher may have been brought up on the old hide-and-seek formula, the teacher attempting to hide his shortages and the supervisor seeking to find something amiss. Perhaps the biggest change in classroom supervision is that it has stopped trying to make teachers what they ought to be and is now concentrating on what they really are. It has generally been learned that effective supervisory help begins with impersonal observation in the classroom rather than with authoritative command.

The beginning teacher or the one with limited experience wants the supervisor to tell him how he is getting along. This desire is

² E. H. Reeder, *A Guide to Supervision in the Elementary Schools* (Urbana: University of Illinois, Office of Publications, 1947), pp. 45-46.

common and quite natural. In part it reflects the spirit of youth today. Furthermore, the teacher has little opportunity to compare his efforts with those of other teachers. His situation is unlike that of his pupils who see their efforts in comparison with their classmates. He teaches in a classroom alone, and hardly knows what should satisfy him. Many a good beginner has minimized his success because of failure to realize what one can be expected to accomplish at that stage of teaching.

Even though the teacher may want to be told how he is getting along, "telling a teacher" may come mighty close to posing as one who can always distinguish accurately between the right and the wrong practice. Certainly the supervisor aware of this pitfall can avoid it. The supervisor who has the confidence of the teacher in the classroom is in a position to lead on to a co-operative search for effective instructional procedures.

As has been indicated by Pearman, "Most supervisors are aware of the experienced teacher's sensitivity to criticism following an observed lesson. The merest implication of dissatisfaction with some part of the lesson is often sufficient to cause her to withdraw into silent resentment, or stubbornly to defend any procedure that is questioned by the supervisor."³

To avoid this the modern supervisor is aided by the broadened view of instruction. The classroom visits of some time back focused attention upon the value of the specific lesson observed. Now a classroom visit is tied into the larger process of a teacher's work, into the broader objectives and the long-range planning. Just as the teacher sees the child's classroom exercise today as only a small related part of his year's work, so the supervisor sees the classroom work of a particular day as only a small related part of the year's work there.

Visitation by invitation or announcement. Whenever classroom visitation is discussed, there arises the question of professional etiquette. Should the visits be made only upon the invitation of the teacher? Perhaps the question is a bit too academic for the spirit of modern human relationships in the school system. If instructional

³ W. I. Pearman, "Toward a Supervisor-Teacher Partnership in the Evaluation of Teaching," *High Points*, 31:5 (May, 1949), p. 22. By permission of the Board of Education of the City of New York.

leadership establishes itself as democratic and helpful, any principal or supervisor serving in a school should find a welcome sign outside the classroom. Such a helper should be able to move in and out of classrooms freely. Teachers and supervisors should reflect a mutual appreciation. If this statement sounds a bit idealistic, perhaps there are some shortages in the supervisory program in the immediate experience of the one thinking it so.

Supervision must be effective if it is worth the investment. It can be so without being officious. But on the other hand it need not be spineless. It would almost seem that in taking control out of the concept some theorists would like to reactivate the generalities of such statements as this: "The business of a supervisor is to cast a genial influence over his schools, but otherwise he is not to interfere with the work."

The work of the schools is not the prize possession of any one group, such as the teachers or the taxpayers. It represents a co-operative enterprise calling for the integrated effort of all parties: teachers, parents, supervisors, administrators, and pupils.

The tendency of supervision to direct its attention to the pupil as well as the teacher is natural. The richest asset of a classroom is also the richest asset of America, an infinite variety of human beings. Supervision has been doing much to help teachers realize this fact. If the supervisor and the teacher each know the child and learn from the child, they are in a position to know and to learn from each other. If either's point of approach is himself rather than the child, it is quite possible that adult differences may cause some confusion.

If co-operation most adequately defines the proper classroom relationship of teacher and supervisor, the child defines the purpose of such co-operation. There is still a place for the direct suggestion to a teacher straight from the supervisor without having to be smuggled into the classroom through an in-service course or a committee report.

It is interesting to note that the question of notifying or not notifying the teacher of the supervisor's coming visit to the classroom is one that commanded attention as early as 1710. In the report of the function of the Selectmen's committee that visited the Boston schools that year is found the statement:

To visit ye School from time to time, to Enform themselves of the methods used in teaching of ye Schollars and to Inquire of their Pro-

ficiency, and be present at the performance of Some of their Exercises, *the Master being before Notified of their Comeing*, And with him to consult and Advise of further Methods for ye Advancement of Learning and the Good Government of the Schoole.⁴

Perhaps fear of supervision comes as often from the fact that visits are too infrequent as it does from the fact that it is improperly handled. The one who wishes to be human in his leadership establishes himself by frequent calls as well as by proper approach.

Any supervisor should recognize the good in the instructional program, regardless of how obvious the shortcomings. Something that is accepted by both teacher and supervisor as promising establishes common ground from which the treatment of other matters may lead quite naturally. He should reflect sincerity in working in a classroom with teacher and pupils. He should avoid insecurity on the teacher's part, by reflecting wholesome interest or confidence in the whole undertaking.

It might well be said that supervision if effective cannot avoid insecurity in all cases. No teacher has the right to consider the classroom as a private, impregnable domain; and one that does has usually grown into that state because of the lack of adequate supervision. There are times when supervision has to choose between the instructional welfare of a group of children and the selfish welfare of an individual teacher. This is not often, but it is an occasional situation that administrative leadership cannot avoid.

The supervisor's classroom approach has been expressed by Stephen Corey in this way: "Some people who are responsible for the maintenance of fine instruction in a school go about their duties in either one of two ways. The negative approach—and this for some queer reason seems to be easier or at least the more popular method—is to identify and try to eliminate faults. Teachers then have their attention called to the things that they do not do well and specific suggestions are made for their improvement. A second method is one that contributes to a sense of well-being and security, and results in much more rapid and more permanent progress. It involves concentrating upon those things that the teacher already does well and of which she is proud and then helping her realize that in the degree

⁴ *Boston Town Records*, "Report of the Record Commissioners," Vol. VIII, p. 65. Italics ours.

that all of her teaching practices are consistent with her best ones she is professionally superior." ⁵

THE VALUE OF GOING TO THE TEACHER ⁶

Present-day practices in supervision present a paradoxical situation to the field supervisor and the school principal, since the professional publications of recent origin condemn inspection and classroom visitation without an invitation, while on the other hand the vast majority of teachers want the field supervisor and the principal to evaluate their work in the classroom from personal observation. Furthermore, the teachers hold to the idea that one of the principal functions of the supervisor is to visit the classroom as frequently as possible to observe the teaching-learning situation firsthand and be ready and willing to give assistance with his problems.

The supervisor who visits the classroom will gain an opportunity to meet the teacher on his own ground, in surroundings which are familiar and where he feels at greater ease. He is, therefore, in a more advantageous position to discuss the teaching-learning situation with the supervisor. The field supervisor and school principal who are sharp observers and friendly listeners can build rapport with the teacher through classroom visits that can hardly be equaled through the use of any other device or activity they may choose to employ. Suffice to say that classroom visits which are helpful and friendly and develop good rapport between teachers and supervisors can be democratic, dynamic, and scientific.

Authorities in the field of supervision all agree that one of the most important functions of the supervisor is to give recognition to the deserving teacher for work well done in the classroom. When a supervisor visits the classroom to commend the teacher, the teacher feels that as an individual his work is a worthwhile contribution and also that he is important as an individual.

Many schools are confronted with a serious personnel problem. The rapid increase of school age children and the shortage of adequately trained teachers to man the nation's schools mean that there

⁵ Stephen M. Corey, "Teachers Are People," *Educational Leadership*, 1:8 (May, 1944), pp. 492-493.

⁶ This section of seven paragraphs is a statement on this subject by Watt A. Long, associate superintendent in the San Francisco Public Schools, whose many years of school experience lead him to emphasize classroom visitation.

are a larger number of teachers who are having their first classroom experience. Obviously, the orientation of so many new hands cannot be adequately done through group meetings alone. Furthermore, group orientation is of necessity generalized and cannot possibly provide the individual with the help he wants with the many little difficulties he meets every day in his classroom.

The teacher will need to have additional on-the-job assistance from the principal and field supervisor to encourage and help with the many problems which always plague a beginner. Children frequently fail to react in a situation as the beginning teacher had anticipated, and he may be at a loss to know how to alter his plans and capture the interest of the class. Frequently, a bit of on-the-job guidance from the supervisor will save the situation for the teacher and at the same time bolster his confidence.

The classroom work for the conscientious new teacher is time consuming and exhausting because he is meeting new situations every minute and hour of his working day. The field supervisor and principal who visit the new teacher in his classroom will be gratefully received and amply repaid for their time, because it saves the time and energy of the teacher. Furthermore, the new teacher is reassured that he has a friendly and sympathetic person who is interested in his success as an individual.

The armchair supervisor has been of very little help to the beginning teacher. Bulletins, written suggestions, office interviews, group meetings, are all helpful; but none carry the weight of a personal visit to the classroom with the new teacher.

THE VISIT TO THE RURAL SCHOOLROOM

The small rural school. In states with a preponderance of small rural schools, the value of direct classroom help for the teacher is commonly emphasized at supervisory conferences. One of such states is South Dakota, where 3,200—or 86 per cent of all schools in the state are one-teacher schools.⁷ With state school funds limited, the responsibility for getting out into the rural schools falls upon the county superintendents themselves. That they take the assignment seriously is indicated by two of their annual state con-

⁷ Walter H. Gaumitz and David T. Blose, *The One-Teacher School—Its Midcentury Status* (Washington, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, Circular 318, 1950).

ferences, in both of which study groups outlined the techniques of effective school and classroom visitation. The following is an outline of the recommendations of these study groups, regarding the visit to the rural classroom and the conference with the teacher afterward:⁸

Preparation for the visit

1. Announce the visit by post card or form letter, giving approximate time of the visit. We as a group recommend that a planned visit, when possible, is better than one unannounced. Even the best teacher does better teaching when she knows you are coming. Furthermore, it makes the conference and the follow-up more complete.

2. Have a definite plan in mind. Decide beforehand what you are going to look for when planning visitation. Make plans flexible so that they may be changed when necessary.

3. Develop proper philosophy and attitude for the visitation,—the philosophy of human service.

Supervising the classroom

1. Respect the teacher in her own schoolroom by knocking at the door.

2. Give the Courtesy Committee a chance to function.

3. Establish friendly relations as you enter, keeping in mind that the superintendent is there for service and not for inspection.

4. Encourage continuance of program as though there were no visitors present.

5. Ask to see some particular phase of her class work that she wants to display.

6. Encourage the teacher to make plans and see that they are carried through.

7. Encourage the teacher to call definite classes and to move children to a definite recitation area.

8. Encourage the teacher to move freely around the room.

The learning environment

1. Encourage seasonal decorations, properly displayed on bulletin boards rather than on windows.

2. Encourage good school housekeeping.

3. Make suggestions to teacher or board members to keep exterior and interior in good repair.

4. Compliment the teacher on new equipment and methods of caring for the equipment.

⁸South Dakota, *County Superintendents' Conference Proceedings*, 1950 and 1951 conferences (Pierre, South Dakota: State Department of Education). (Editorial liberty has been taken in combining the recorded proceedings of the two conferences, to save space and avoid repetition.)

Other matters of supervisory concern

1. Supervise the lunch hour, note washing habits and rectify if necessary.
2. Stress courtesy and good manners, and encourage a wholesome and happy lunch period.
3. Compliment the teacher on professional or neat appearance.
4. Emphasize that the teacher is the example at school and in the community.
5. Keep comments informal, concise, and constructive.
6. Give suggestions diplomatically.
7. Never criticize the teacher before the pupils.
8. Talk to the school group when it seems to be the desirable thing to do.

Follow-up work

1. Confer with the teacher at the close of the visitation period.
2. Present a skilled and fair analysis of her work, including a diagnosis and treatment of any difficulties.
3. Maintain a friendly and courteous approach throughout the conference.
4. Keep a record of the visit and conference for the sake of future visitations, using it professionally and ethically.
5. Never gossip about the teacher or the pupils' work.
6. Report to board members on physical plant and equipment, and concerning a pupil or a teacher problem.
7. Confer with parents concerning their children's needs.

In the report of a study group of one of these conferences is this promising note of confidence that these county leaders expressed in their work: "A supervisor exchanges the satisfaction of working with children for the challenge of influencing the lives of many. We have helped rural children achieve the abundant life which is their heritage." The recorder of the proceedings closes with this note:

The professional spirit of county superintendents was evidenced by the sincerity of all participants, by the enthusiasm exhibited, by a willingness to share with each other, and by the cooperation among groups. Rural education in South Dakota confidently places its leadership with county superintendents, and endows them with the responsibility for improving the educational leadership, and the betterment of teaching, learning, and community living which will result in a better society.⁹

Suggestions in Maine. School leadership from coast to coast is highly sensitive to the human factor in school relationships. The

⁹ *Ibid.*, 1950 conference, p. 21.

suggestions for classroom supervision that were developed in the Dakotas have their counterpart in a similar directive in Maine. The State Department of Education has this advice for those who carry the supervisory responsibility over the state:

The teacher holds the key position in any program of instruction or curriculum improvement, and success will depend largely upon her reaction. The growth of the teaching personnel should be cultivated slowly and naturally through experience. It cannot be compelled by authoritative order. Individual differences are as important among teachers as they are among children. The growth of the entire teaching staff will progress unevenly, and this must be expected.¹⁰

NEW SUPERVISORS AS WELL AS NEW TEACHERS

Each year the new teachers over the land are matched by a good percentage of new supervisors and new principals with supervisory responsibilities. They face the task of commanding the respect of the experienced as well as the inexperienced teacher. The beginning supervisor is often as nervous as a pedestrian going through a change of lights. It would be well if there were a master key that could be handed them which would open all the classroom doors. But there has as yet been no technician able to shape such a key.

Those in leadership capacity who have gone out into the classrooms before have set up their individual approach to the job of helping teachers. It is difficult to separate techniques from personalities. Consequently, it is difficult to salvage patterns for beginners. The little formula that follows is presented for whatever value it may carry to the new supervisor. It is a formula rather than a pattern, and it is not self-operating.

Three variables exist in every teaching situation. They are the child, the teacher, and the setting. The supervisor who comes to help a given classroom must diagnose the interplay of the three as soon as possible. Only by seeing the three in relationship to each other is he in any position to help to improve instruction and learning. At this stage the possibilities for improvement are questions whose answers are hidden in these three variables. Difficulties or possibilities in a teaching situation may be accountable for in either or in all three of these.

¹⁰ Maine State Department of Education, *A Forward Step*, Curriculum Bulletin No. 7 (Augusta: the Department), p. 96. See also the Maine reference in Chapter 8.

The setting. The setting includes the facilities provided for teaching and learning. These are the room, the supplies, the equipment—in short, the props or the stage effects. Other personalities in the school may even help to determine this over-all backdrop of this teaching situation. A required course of study, a state-adopted textbook, and a score of similar specific items are a part of the setting.

The child. The ability of the child, his nature, and his background are highly significant to one who would help him. These are matters that should be common knowledge of the teacher. It is background information that the supervisor usually secures from the teacher.

However, there may have been a lack of evaluative instruments, an absence of home contacts, or a misjudgment of the teacher. The child's presence in this particular class may have represented an administrative misplacement. There are a hundred and one other probabilities in the case of a classroom of pupils.

The teacher. The nature, the background, and the training of the teacher all mean something to the supervisor. The ability of the teacher to do this or that in the program is of concern.

The relative relationship of these three variables is not easy to determine, but it is worth consideration. The fact that a teacher may fail in one classroom and succeed in another indicates the significance of the setting or the children being served. Supervision, in its breadth of effort today, concentrates on all three of these variables. Curriculum planning, in-service courses, and the selection of instructional materials are all features of good leadership. Supervision needs always to be able to diagnose an instructional situation to determine strengths and weaknesses.

Perhaps good supervisors become experienced in sizing up a classroom to determine which of these factors is the one making the difference there, and to what degree it makes the difference between good, average, or poor learning. Here is an excellent situation; what makes it so? Here is a meager situation; what accounts for it?

This formula should not imply that the supervisor is an expert diagnostician who goes around placing his supervisory stethoscope on the heart of a classroom. The approach as described is oversimplified, it is true; but somewhere in the supervisory process the natural reactions of the supervisors must run somewhat along such channels. And the work of the supervisor, be it in the classroom or out, has one chief purpose—to enable the teacher to give his best to the job.

For Further Consideration

To what extent should a supervisor, in classroom visitation, talk about weaknesses in instructional procedures? To what extent does emotional disturbance or embarrassment on the teacher's part nullify the value of classroom supervision? To what degree can a teacher-supervisor discussion of a classroom visit represent an objective rather than a personal treatment of teaching? If a supervisory conference is held with a teacher relative to his classroom program, what suggestions can be given for the supervisor's approach? What are the points of difference between the supervision of a student teacher and that of a probationary or beginning teacher? How can classroom visitation be successfully tied into other aspects of the supervisor's program so that this activity does not appear to the teacher as an isolated service? Is there reason to believe that direct classroom supervision is more necessary in the elementary school than in the secondary school? Are there instances when visitation by the supervisor should be limited to invitation by the teacher or invitation by the principal?

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14

The Secondary-School Classroom

THE curriculum planner lives not so much on the treasure at his feet as on that which grips his imagination. Not so with the supervisor who spends his day in the classroom. He is so engrossed with the exigencies of the moment that he has less time to contemplate the instructional possibilities of the future. Both have their place. Both make their contribution to the advancement of education.

SHORTAGES IN PERSONNEL

But unfortunately, the great majority of America's high schools receive the help of neither a curriculum director nor a supervisor. For 28 per cent of them enroll fewer than 75 pupils each, 39 per cent enroll fewer than 100, 64 per cent enroll fewer than 200, 75 per cent enroll fewer than 300, and 85 per cent enroll fewer than 500 pupils.¹ The records carry some criticism of the supervision that has been exerted upon the high school classroom. However, this classroom has suffered more by supervisory neglect and default than by supervisory misuse.

Unattached to the larger school system that can afford special positions of instructional leadership, the small high school can exploit the resources of no extra personnel. State and county provision of supervisory positions has been predominantly an investment in elementary education. The chance service that comes to a small-town or rural high school is usually the visit of a high school inspector responsible to an accrediting agency, or the help of a county curriculum co-ordinator.

¹ Information supplied by the United States Office of Education, January, 1953.

To the high school principal falls the assignment of instructional leadership. He is chosen by acclamation. Not only is he the logical person, but in perhaps two thirds of the schools he is the only one available. Even in those schools that can claim the services of special instructional offices, the principal holds the position of greatest possible leadership.

At the moment the high school classroom clamors for attention. Having lost prominence some years back to the more glamorous curriculum movements, classroom supervision now promises unusual awards in instructional advancement. This can be accounted for by the times.

THE INFLUENCE OF THE TIMES²

Just as education is always a matter of time and place, so the nature of the program of instructional improvement likewise reflects time and place. The 1950-1960 decade, now well under way, hasn't started out as though it were going to produce any major structural changes in the secondary school curriculum, as answers to the problems that have been plaguing the school since the day it earnestly opened its doors to the masses. Perhaps the times are not right. Cold wars, atomic jitters, the continued rise in the cost of living, and similar pressures on the national level are not exactly conducive to high-school experimentation on the local level.

To a noticeable extent, school operation has always reflected the times. The dominant spirit of the 1930-1940 period was the search for improved instructional procedures. It was a liberal period in American life, and school experimentation also seemed a natural thing to both layman and educator. The 1940-1950 period, dominated by the war, was largely one of retooling the secondary school to serve preinduction purposes and to foster morale building activities on the home front. The latter years of the decade saw a return to the literature that had sparked curriculum study just prior to the war, but no significant implementation of the literature was apparent.

Decline in curriculum revision. As for the present decade, the concern for education that has possessed both the professional

² Some of the ideas in this section of this chapter were first presented by the writer in *California Journal of Secondary Education*, 27:5 (May, 1952), pp. 255-262.

worker and the layman seems to have been (1) the need of more teachers and schoolrooms, because of higher birth rates and mounting enrollments, and (2) the related need of better salaries. Within the past few years, the lay concern for better salaries and consequently better teaching, as evidenced in highly organized national movements as well as in more informal local steps, has been heartening. It is just as noticeable that during these past few years there has been neither national nor local lay agitation of great significance for curriculum reorganization. And the handful of school patrons who have given any attention to the school curriculum have for the most part interpreted the times as inviting adherence to the status quo. We must recall that the 1930-1940 decade was highlighted by lay interest and participation in curriculum reorganization.

It is not our purpose in this short chapter to review the ills of the school. This has been done repeatedly by national commissions, educational conferences, textbook writers, and institute speakers. From the beginning it has been easier to find the goals of the school and the difficulties of achieving them than it has been to find the means of surmounting those difficulties. The matter is a challenge to supervisory leadership. In a nutshell, the problem has been (1) to provide a broad and meaningful curriculum—meaningful to the great range of ability and purpose represented by all the youth of high school age, and (2) to effect an efficient and sympathetic manipulation of the curriculum by the faculty. If the answer to this enigma has not yet been found, certainly the local high school cannot be blamed. *It is to be blamed only if it moves along complacently as though there were no such problem.*

The present respite from pronounced curriculum development need not prevent a school system from at least catching up with some unfinished business in the instructional department. In fact, the absence of impelling national curriculum movements may be a blessing in disguise. Curriculum reorganization that involves major structural pronouncements from afar is not only discouraging for most school systems, but often it blinds them to simpler but more profound improvements that have been taking place in classroom operation. The current period may well act as a breathing spell, during which a local school can take inventory to assure itself that its instructional practices are in keeping with those that have stood the test of trial and evaluation in a statistically significant number of

classrooms. The invitation for high school supervision to turn again to the classroom is indeed strong.

STANDARDS FOR HIGH SCHOOL SUPERVISION

The points that follow are presented as features of a good instructional program, features that have come with no radical change in curriculum structure. Instead, most of them can be classified in the area of classroom methods, involving such matters as teacher attitudes, school atmosphere, and basic appreciations of the inherent nature of youth and fundamental American ideals. A few touch guidance and curricular offerings. This list is presented merely as a review of what we might expect to find in good school operation all over the land. They are representative of the common understanding of high school instruction that should be possessed by the person responsible for supervision.

1. *Responsibility for learning is not thrown completely upon the student, but is shared by the teacher.* The old take-it-or-leave-it attitude is not a part of the modern secondary school. The teacher's responsibility goes far beyond making an assignment. Today there is ample directed help in such matters as problem solving, foreign language study, and theme writing. They are not merely assigned tasks. A good teacher is judged so by the amount of help given the students, rather than by the number of failures recorded at the end of the term. He is sensitive to human need and to promising means of reaching each class member. Classrooms take on the atmosphere of work rooms rather than mere reciting rooms. Work to be done out of class is preceded by sufficient explanatory work in the classroom. There is no justification of a home assignment that must be undertaken without sufficient understanding. The old plan of making assignments and then withdrawing from the learning situation until the student brought in his work to be checked is being discarded because of the human waste involved. The good teacher is a part of each step in the learning situation.

The record of a teacher's class marks, by semesters and by grading periods, acts as a quick supervisory diagnosis of instructional effectiveness. The record of drop-outs in a teacher's classes is also significant. Good supervision in the high school includes periodic all-staff examination of marking practices. Tables and charts of the

distribution of marks, presented on a departmental basis, reveal school practice, and serve as the basis for faculty discussion and committee study. These discussions and studies invariably lead back into classroom methods.

The pupil's own shortcomings may be pointed out to him, but he should not have to carry the blame for poor teaching practices. Supervision must sit as the judge in such matters, and administration cannot run away from the responsibility. A growing adolescent's emotional disturbances over classroom expectations that he cannot cope with are concerns of supervision. It is something that cannot be dismissed from administrative responsibility. Pupil discouragement, disinterest, and their accompanying evils often reflect poor instructional methods.

The instructional leader realizes that a teacher's marking practices are an integral part of his instructional procedures. They are tied directly into pupil interest, effort, attitude, and out-put. Consequently, they cannot be dismissed by the principal as outside his supervisory province. The degree of the teacher's knowledge of adolescent psychology is revealed more readily by his marking practices than by any other one aspect of his teaching. Instructional leadership is indeed called for here.

As long as the American high school retains the traditional marking system that emphasizes competitive achievement, then the principal as the chief supervisor needs to see that the student receives his just dues. Ever so often there appears on the secondary school horizon a teacher who sacrifices pupil personality on the altar of institutionalism, justifying his merciless distribution of low marks on the grounds of preserving the school's good name. Such a teacher who discounts the effort and the achievement of his pupils places institutions before people. The teacher whose chief concern is the reputation of his pupils need not worry about his own reputation or that of the school. They are automatically preserved through his concern for the welfare of his pupils. High school teachers have found it more noble to educate a pupil than to fail him, more noble to help him into college than to keep him out, more noble to build up his confidence than to tear it down.

The high school principal is in a sense the guardian of the educational rights of each pupil in the school. Lethargy or limitations in the principal's ability may lead him to dispatch this obligation by

doing little more than sitting as judge to hear the arguments between pupils and teachers, and between teachers and parents. If he is not content to limit his instructional influence to judicial action, he will take the instructional offensive; he will assume the leadership in the legislation and execution of sound instructional procedures.

2. *The work to be done is within the range and comprehension of the student doing it.* The school administration works closely with the home to see that the parent does not force a pupil into a program beyond his range of achievement. Likewise good supervision assures the pupil that the teacher does not offer a course on an ability or appreciation level above his comprehension. For instance, it is an educational crime to require a student to take a required English course and then pitch the literature on an appreciation level above the learner. It is just as bad to require an American history course for graduation and then for credit require the reading of materials that are above the comprehension level of those in the course. The modern school is staffed with teachers who appreciate the pedagogical necessity of beginning their work at the level of the student.

American society through state legislation has decreed that all youth be compelled to go to high school, most states requiring attendance until age 16 and a few until age 18 or graduation. This public investment is based on the theory that each youth can profit through such attendance. Under such circumstances we in the teaching positions can do no less than provide for each a program that is in keeping with his ability to learn. This means not only direction into the proper course but sympathetic treatment within that course. It means the careful adjustment of work.

This is not to say that the school is satisfied to permit the student to choose the level of his work. Instead, the modern school knows a lot about each person and is in a position to know what accomplishment to expect, and consequently can set up classroom procedures accordingly.

The good teacher sees that the ability of the brighter student is taxed to capacity, just as he sees that the work is not pitched at a level above the slower child. To do these two things in the same classroom forces the teacher to use his ingenuity in setting up learning procedures. The one-assignment-for-all and the one-class-standard-for-all are easy ways out, but they don't serve the teacher who

wishes to pitch the work to the range and comprehension of each student.

3. *The teacher and the administrator respect the pupil's maturity and accept him as a planner in the educational endeavor, rather than treating him as a child who is to do little more than listen to dictates and carry out directions.* Supervision is concerned that there are provided plenty of opportunities in the classroom and in the extra-class activities for the pupil to help plan the work that is to make up his program from day to day. The simple assign-study-recite formula of former days has been exposed as the easier method that a teacher could follow. Today the more difficult approach of taking students into the planning of their blocks of work, and into periodic evaluations of progress to further more planning and learning, is putting the older methods to shame.

The atmosphere of work sought in the school is not one of students waiting to be started by teacher assignments, and then stopping until directed again. Instead, it is the atmosphere of work to be done that seems meaningful—student effort that doesn't run in short spurts. This implies co-operative planning involving students as well as teachers. This type of classroom operation invites a reasonable number of pupils per class. For most teachers over 30 pupils would perhaps discourage this close relationship.

In the extra-class field, the responsibilities being assumed by students in the modern school are much heavier than carrying football helmets or planning a school party. Handling budgets to support activities, helping to decide controversial matters that come up between schools, tackling student welfare problems, helping to work out athletic schedules, and managing the budgets of large student publications are examples of the host of meaningful experiences through which youth in a modern school has the right to develop.

4. *Each student follows a program that respects his out-of-school endeavor and schedule.* The teacher, in assigning home work, recognizes that the student needs to budget his out-of-school time and effort on approximately a week's basis. Consequently, assignments are not made on the spur of the moment, but rather, approximately a week's work is announced in advance so that the student may piece his home work into his other activities of the week. Not only do short notice home assignments not respect the other meaningful

activities in a high school youth's life, but they deny him the chance to learn to budget his time.

Some students cannot go to school a full day. The student of today's high school can get a part-time school program if his life situation at the moment justifies it. He may be able to spend the morning in school and the afternoon on a job, or vice versa. The girl who marries while in high school can come back to school for some functional courses for as little as two hours a day. It is administratively easier to run a full day schedule for all, and discourage these part-time programs. However, administrative organization finds its true purpose in serving the educational needs of individual youth, and each deserves the schedule that fits him best. Supervision of instruction means effecting such program arrangements just as much as it means helping with the offering itself.

5. *The high school accepts graciously all the students who come up from the school below.* The modern high school is not a selective institution, in either an intellectual or an economic sense. It is there to serve all the youth rather than to skim the academic cream from the masses. In the really modern school there is no inclination on the part of teachers to sort or screen students as though we were grading oranges or cattle for the market. The modern teacher knows the great variations in the physical, social, and intellectual makeup of the race, realizing that the core of the American idea is a recognition of the worth of each human being. The indifference toward and the consequent discouragement of the less interested student that was so apparent in yesterday's school has no place in a modern secondary school.

The future of America rests in the potential power of her youth, this power being that of character as well as economic effectiveness. This potential strength or worth of an individual student is not to be taken lightly by any teacher. It is a value, a power, that has to be cultivated, developed, or brought out. To cast aside a portion of the students as untrained, unfit, or not ready for high school is to sell the birthright of the American public secondary school for a pot of scholastic porridge.

But the practical application of this principle by the teachers calls for administrative help in such matters as (1) getting the right pupil in the right class, (2) arranging part-time schedules for some stu-

dents, as treated above, (3) keeping classes down to a reasonable size, and (4) providing good supervisory leadership.

6. *The teacher understands and applies classroom procedures that enable him to individualize instruction.* To us who have worked at both the elementary and secondary school levels, it is apparent that in the basic teacher-training program, the elementary school teacher receives much more training in classroom methods than does the secondary teacher.

For instance, it is common procedure for an elementary teacher to handle the class in two or three groups in such subjects as reading and arithmetic, placing as much as two thirds of the class effectively on a laboratory study plan while centering instructional attention on a small segment of ten or so children. Consequently, she accepts it as natural for children in the room to be working and attaining at three or four different levels in the skill subjects. It is quite easy for her to appreciate that the children will also be at various levels in their social concepts and behavior patterns.

More and more high school teachers in subject areas once dominated by the group recitation plan, are today balancing the recitation plan with some laboratory type plan that enables them to work with individual pupils or with small groups. They have profited by the classroom methods commonly used in the elementary schools and in the high school laboratory subjects such as home-making, the sciences, and the arts. For instance, it is educationally expedient for a teacher of social studies, English, or foreign language to alternate days of recitation with days of directed help.

7. *English classes reflect the functional use of language.* It seems proper to pick out English for special consideration here, because by state or local requirement it is invariably designated as the core of the high school curriculum. The heavy time requirement marks it so. Improvement in the use of our language is the heart of the English program. It has never been established that the best way to improve one's oral and written language is through the intensive study of formal grammar to the exclusion of ample practice in written composition. Limited classroom time forces the teacher to plan a carefully balanced program. As Fred Wolcott, a Michigan leader in the field of language arts, has pointed out, grammar is the science of language and as such can claim all the cultural values of any other science such as botany or astronomy; the knowledge of

grammar may enable those who possess it to talk about the common problems of language; but as a knowledge of botany won't of itself change plants, neither will a knowledge of grammar of itself change language habits.

The mechanics of language. The intensive and scientific study of the more technical mechanics of the English language as a basic program for all high school pupils is giving way to practice in the functional use of the language. Whereas the intensive study of grammar workbooks once crowded out of the classroom adequate practice in the use of English, the modern English program now places the oral and written expression of one's own thoughts in the foremost position. For learning to write there is no substitute for practice in it. This approach does not eliminate consideration of the mechanics of language structure, for the study of mechanics has its place, but it does mean that such grammar study must be a means to this other end, rather than an end or content in itself. Good English teachers realize that the test of their instruction is the student's ability *to use* grammar rather than *to know* grammar. To express oneself better is the major aim of the language arts, in the area of written and oral expression.

What one has to say is recognized as highly significant, with the English teacher there to help him improve how he says it. Some of this is oral expression; some of it, written. In the earlier school the teacher's caustic criticism of the student's oral expression, as he tried to get over a point, often put to flight any ideas that were there. Likewise, the red-pencil search for errors on the written page seemed to take precedence over any instructional concern for the writer's ideas. Modern existence throws people together much more than did that of our childhood days. Facility in the use of our own language is more important than ever before, and consequently the means of achieving it must stand the test of actual accomplishment. English instruction takes on greater significance than ever before. And consequently, so does the proper procedure.

In today's high school, provision for the improvement of oral expression finds a place in the regularly required English classes and securing this help is not dependent upon taking an elective course in speech as was the case some years ago. The values of live language experiences, such as writing for the school paper and participation in forums and plays, are recognized more and more in the regular

English classes, rather than being relegated to special elective courses. The crowded curriculum, with limited election, is bringing this about. Some day instructional leaders at the high school level are going to save the student precious time in this field. They will determine the skills and abilities in language expression that the student brings with him into the school, and on the basis of this knowledge will set up for him a program that avoids the repetition of work already adequately mastered.

There is a growing appreciation among high schools that the English teacher needs to know more of the elementary techniques of teaching reading, so that the pupil can secure help in the regular class. The literature portion of the English courses is also having to meet the functional test. Literary requirements must meet the test of being within the possible appreciation level of the student. This in turn has meant wide differentiation in the reading selections among the pupils of a given class. It is recognized that the effectiveness of the literature instruction must be its carry over into the out-of-school reading habits of youth. High school literature can no longer be looked upon as a dosage of culture to be taken and then forgotten as something behind us.

Reform in required courses. The great variety of electives that came into the English department during the past thirty years are evidence that in curriculum planning it is simpler to add a new course than to revise an old one to incorporate new values. We are now recognizing that the required English courses can be much more meaningful if they draw freely upon these other skills. If a student has to elect an additional English over and beyond the required ones in order to have the satisfaction of writing for print or that of speaking before an audience, then the majority who could profit by such experience will never have the opportunity.

The English teacher's classroom needs to hold a position in the student's mind as the place where he can go to get help in expressing the things he needs to say and write in his school and out-of-school life. The great amount of time that is given English in the high school curriculum makes this possible. There is no reason that the high school graduate shouldn't leave high school with facility in the use of his native language proportionate to his life needs. Our failures in accomplishing this to date largely reflect deficiencies in

teaching methods. Good instructional leadership should overcome such deficiencies.

8. *There is noticeable a tendency toward courses and related activities that bear functional value to the lives of the students and consequently to that of the community.* This is apparent in the courses that have been added to the curriculum, many of these coming by legislative action and consequently reflecting the public will. Health, physical education, driver education, and the study of local government and civic affairs are examples of the courses instigated by the taxpayer and reflecting his faith in the school's ability to teach right action through courses set up in those specific fields of civic action.

Examples of the scores of courses added during the first half of this century that relate directly to the things people do are practical mathematics, crafts, general shop, journalism, dramatics, speech, typing, homemaking, and auto mechanics. This trend is likewise seen in the shifting of emphasis in the more academic courses of longer standing, such as English, biology, chemistry, physics, and modern languages. The applications of science have found place in the classroom alongside the basic principles.

In the case of French and Spanish it is generally accepted that in today's world, in which national groups are thrown more and more together, the major values rest with the use of the languages in communication. Consequently, as function in a sense takes precedence over form, the direct method of instruction takes precedence over the purely academic. Talking a foreign language takes precedence over talking about it. In those classrooms devoid of the direct method, the teacher usually does not have facility in speaking the language, having received his own training in talking about the language rather than talking it. The study of sentence structure and form can retain a proper balance with the direct method of instruction. The teacher has many transcriptions to aid him in following the direct method.

All such distinctions as these must be appreciated by the person who would supervise secondary school instruction. This is true of the special subject supervisor as well as of the principal. Help given in any instructional area calls for the larger understanding of the curriculum.

9. *The curriculum of the modern school is broad enough to give each student a program that he accepts as meaningful to his life.* The consolidation of small school districts into larger ones has provided larger high schools and consequently broader offerings to meet more needs. Even the smaller schools have found the more ingenious methods of extending their offerings, such as (1) alternating courses from year to year, (2) enabling a teacher to handle two or three related subjects at one class period, by means of a laboratory approach, and (3) taking advantage of correspondence courses. Here again good methods of instruction come to the front. Supervision often plays the role of expediter.

To provide each student a program meaningful for him calls for an adequate curriculum range, good guidance procedures, and proper classroom methods of instruction. The ingenuity of the administrator is taxed to the limit in setting up a schedule of classes that enables each student to enter the courses best fitted to him. Inefficiency in carrying out this task results in schedule conflicts and consequent compromises in courses to be selected. Once the student is in his proper course, supervision is concerned about maximum profit from the work. An adequate course or a misplaced pupil is as much the concern of supervision as is the instructional effort of the teacher.

10. *The classroom is a workroom, not merely a study or a reciting room.* The American high school has been wedded to the recitation. Uniform assignments and parrotlike procedures are features of this paralyzing burden. But more and more subject teachers are moving over to workroom and laboratory type procedures. Time is provided in such classes as English, mathematics, and social studies for students to work individually with the teacher.

For instance, an English room is equipped with tables and chairs. Written language is not something to be assigned in class, prepared outside, and recited the next day in the room. It is the expression of ideas, to be carried out with the help of the teacher while in the classroom. Work periods are provided for such study and effort. Recitations do not take up over half of the time of the week. This laboratory approach enables the students to move along at their own speed. The talented are freed to move ahead. Reading and literature are handled on a similar plan.

Mathematics is likewise taught in a workroom atmosphere. Be-

sides demonstration and recitation the teacher moves around to help individual students. Thus the burden of teaching is accepted by the instructor instead of being shifted to the student through the old assign-study-recite procedure. A number of subjects lend themselves to the unit plan of instruction. As much as anything else, this represents long-range planning and organization of the course work co-operatively by teacher and pupil. It frees the student from the spoon feeding represented by the daily assignment, it respects his maturity. It encourages self-direction and responsibility. It brings out initiative and ingenuity. The limitation of space prevents a detailed discussion of this method of instruction.³

These ten are only a few of the concerns of alert principals and good supervisors. They represent difficult teaching, calling for study and planning on the part of the teacher as well as the pupil. The leadership will likewise help teachers in such essential areas as the nature of the learning process and the nature of high school youth. High school teaching demands teachers with better training and broader backgrounds than was the case some years back.

HELPING THE BEGINNING HIGH SCHOOL TEACHER

It has been rather clearly established that in general high school principals do not find the time that they think they would like to find for classroom supervision. This being the case, practice shows that, the time thus being limited, attention is first given to those teachers with difficulties. Naturally, the beginning teachers are given a major share of such supervision, the reasoning being that in general the teacher of some standing knows what he is doing and is in no urgent need of help.

The needs of the beginner deserve separate treatment. The need of security in the new situation is apparent. Such security must first be established before the beginner is able to appreciate some of the points of method discussed above. Much has been written about this unique situation of the beginning teacher. One of the more comprehensive lists of suggestions was developed in a recent secondary school workshop under the leadership of James Stone of the California State Department of Education. Although some of the points may seem a bit regimental, as a whole they should help the super-

³ See Harold Spears, "The Unit Plan of Teaching," *The High School for Today* (New York: American Book Company, 1950), pp. 172-178.

visor who is trying to place himself in the position of the new teacher just off the college production line. They are grouped into five categories: classroom routine, teaching procedures and methods, guidance and counseling, class management, and personal traits.

HINTS FOR BEGINNING HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS¹

Classroom Routine

1. Teach your own name carefully and accurately.
2. Learn the names of students quickly.
3. Study carefully the seating plan of students.
4. Keep accurate record of absences and tardiness.
5. Get all reports in on time.
6. Familiarize yourself with procedures and forms of school.
7. Maintain a neat room with attractive bulletin boards.
8. Keep room well ventilated and lighted.
9. Impress on students the importance of respect for school property.
10. Have a definite system for collecting and distributing materials, to avoid confusion.

Teaching Procedures and Methods

1. Be on time; have everything ready to start class work.
2. Use variety of teaching methods.
3. Make assignments definite and clear.
4. Encourage students to report on anything of current interest to them and the class, which pertains to the course.
5. Word questions clearly so that students know what you are asking them.
6. Encourage students to answer questions rather than having you do all the talking.
7. Before starting anything be sure you get the attention of every member of the class.
8. Deviate from lesson plan when necessary.
9. Create opportunities for all students to participate.
10. Choose visual material which correlates with subject matter.
11. Allow supervised study time.
12. Make necessary explanations about corrected papers.
13. Keep informed on school activities by reading the bulletin and remind students of coming events.
14. Vary methods of discussion, such as dramas, radio-form programs, psychodramas, panel discussions, group dynamics, debates.
15. Avoid being sidetracked.
16. Stop trying to teach students something which they cannot learn.
17. Avoid difficult assignments when you first begin.

¹James C. Stone, "Helpful Hints on Classroom Management," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, 26:6 (October, 1951), pp. 360-362.

18. Recognize that high school students like to work hard at worthwhile tasks.
19. Make all students feel they are essential to the success of the classroom.
20. Give a reasonable amount of praise to the class as a whole and to individual members.
21. Strive to include all students in class activity.
22. Make every effort to avoid all suggestion of criticism or anger before group.
23. Explain errors to student individually rather than before a whole class, when an individual matter.
24. Use large, legible handwriting on blackboard.
25. Provide laboratory type of situation in which students solve problems by extensive use of instructional materials.
26. Stand on your own feet; avoid asking supervising teacher for help while class is in session.
27. Learn to follow at any one time everything taking place in the room.
28. Explain and clarify your system of evaluation.
29. Set up class goals democratically so that all will feel responsible for achievement.
30. Close work of class in time to collect materials and books, leave room in order, etc.

Guidance and Counseling

1. Learn something of the background—home situation, health records, test scores, anecdotal records, etc.—of each student.
2. Recognize individual differences.
3. Establish feeling of confidence so that student feels free to ask your assistance in personal and school problems.
4. Be accessible for student conferences.
5. Maintain and help keep up to date cumulative records.
6. Show continued interest and follow-up in assisting students to solve their problems.
7. Share your knowledge and understanding of students with other teachers.
8. Seek information and advice from other school personnel—deans, attendance clerk, coaches, study hall teachers, nurse, other teachers.

Class Management

1. Base your discipline on a *do* rather than a *don't* basis.
2. Use the standards of the group as a foundation of your disciplinary measures.
3. Do not allow students to wander around room. Movement for sound purpose is different.
4. Expect good conduct or manners and high standards of work.

5. Be sympathetic and understanding but firm in your dealings with students.
6. Maintain a certain reserve and be friendly rather than "chummy."
7. Try to adopt and extend this philosophy: "I like you, even though I do not like what you do."
8. Be just and fair.
9. Avoid yelling at class to keep order.
10. Avoid threats.
11. Stop minor disturbances before they become major problems.
12. Treat disciplinary matters in a manner which indicates that your motive is to secure proper conditions for good class work and not to punish. If more severe measures are needed with certain individuals, do not take care of the situation with the class as "on-lookers."
13. Encourage respect and honesty.
14. Recognize factors which might produce discipline cases, such as: physical handicaps, physical conditions of room, size of class, time of day, type of subject, interest in subject, attitude and aptitude.
15. Make every effort to solve your own discipline problems; after exhausting your resources, refer cases to deans.

Personal Traits

1. Take criticism without being an "alibi Ike."
2. Be punctual in turning in lesson plans, reports, etc.
3. Avoid harsh language and loud voice.
4. Handle controversial subjects diplomatically.
5. Develop a sincere, wholesome sense of humor.
6. Use proper English; avoid the excessive use of slang.
7. Be courteous and expect courtesy.
8. Avoid the use of sarcasm.
9. Say what you mean and mean what you say.
10. Be well groomed and well mannered.
11. Show sincere interest in students, school activities, co-workers.
12. Be willing to admit you "don't know all the answers."
13. Avoid subjecting students to ridicule and embarrassment; be tactful.
14. Develop initiative and resourcefulness.
15. Uphold the ethics of the teaching profession.

ONLY A SAMPLING OF METHODS

Some of the curriculum study of our time has carried an element of blue-bird chasing, in which the administrator found it more exhilarating, and maybe less fatiguing, to chase off after a fancy curriculum pattern than to tarry a bit in his own classrooms. Any school staff, working over a period of time, with supervisory lead-

ership, can devise an effective instructional yardstick by which to measure the good and the bad in classroom operation.

In this chapter there has been no attempt to be comprehensive. This is not a classroom methods book. There are scores of other classroom features of a modern secondary school just as significant as those listed here. Furthermore, these methods are not all distinctive to a secondary school; many of them are features of a good elementary school. Today in teacher training and in school operation we discourage the old tendency of considering the two institutions as highly different. Their purposes are practically the same, and many of their methods should be. The modern secondary school is a broader school than its forerunners, and in turn it is a busier school with greater intensity of effort on the part of both student body and staff. It is a thinking and doing school; with classroom methods holding a more significant position than ever before. If some high schools have reneged to date on their obligation to the study of classroom procedures, the supervisory stimulation of the intensive consideration of such matters would be most creditable.

For Further Consideration

What supervisory means are available to the principal for effecting proper changes in instructional methods of a staff of teachers? What are the means of assuring proper correlation of instructional subjects in the secondary school? What are the means available to any high school teacher in individualizing instruction? Are modern methods of instruction more prevalent in some subjects than in others? To what extent is instructional leadership at the high school level dependent upon affecting teaching methods and to what extent upon affecting curriculum pattern?

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15

The Elementary School Classroom

THE immediate challenge to supervision is that of distribution, of getting into classroom use the methods and materials that are known to be good. Supervision's problem is still largely one of bridging the numerous gaps between what is known about teaching and what is done in teaching. Much is known in the field of childhood education; much is being applied in the schools; but many classrooms are still in need of leadership.

SHORTAGES IN TRAINING

Any discussion of supervisory service must respect the practical school conditions of the moment. It cannot be limited to more enticing *what-should-be*; it must deal with the more troublesome *what-is*. Supervision's problem in the nation's elementary schools is administration's problem of mounting enrollments. It is the story of increased enrollments, increased shortages of teachers, and the consequent increased need of supervisory help in the classrooms where these pressures are being felt.

When supervisory service was first supplied early in this century, it came in to piece out the weaknesses of teacher training. The eventual up-grading of the training institutions enabled supervision to shift its attention to curriculum planning and the higher levels of in-service training. But the heavy increase in school enrollments during the last decade presents supervision again with the practical problem of untrained teachers. The alarming discrepancy between the number of new elementary teachers needed each fall and the number graduating from college clearly defines supervision's immediate task. It is not uncommon for as many as a third of the

teachers in an elementary school to be new to the job each fall. And the emergency credential, denoting shortages in training, is becoming increasingly common each year. Supervision is asked to face first things first. It is back in the teacher-training business, whether it likes it or not.

It's the little things that count—that added together make the difference between a good and a poor elementary school classroom. So many of these have to do with language and reading instruction, it seems appropriate to emphasize these two activities in this chapter. Our concern here is with the instructional approach rather than the curriculum itself. The supervisor who can detect the short-comings in these subjects is in a good position to win the confidence of the teacher.

In this chapter we treat mainly the supervisory leadership in the area of instructional techniques. And in doing so, the discussion is limited to only a small aspect of the total program. To have done otherwise would have been to issue a longer study on methods, a field in itself. Included in the chapter is a short section dealing with the adoption of books and teaching materials.

HELPING WITH READING

The examples that follow represent a sampling of the multitude of "little things" about teaching reading that make up the working stock of a general elementary supervisor.

1. Supervision can still find traces of that old time-waster—reading orally around the room. Pupils bobbing up one after another in rotation, reading the passages in a book—the lesson—at the stop-and-go direction of the teacher. Corrections being made by the teacher, with the latter laboriously working with one child while the others await their turn.

Some upper grade teachers permit the child in oral reading to stumble around trying to pronounce a word the meaning of which he doesn't even understand. Good supervision is on guard against such waste of pupil effort.

2. Another little classroom slip is the too common practice of throwing a fourth-grader into silent reading stints above his comprehension and beyond his concentration span. If the pupil has been permitted to go through a third-grade room with limited practice

in silent reading, this must be considered by the fourth-grade teacher. The break in method and expectation between the third and fourth grades is still deep in many schools, accounting for the loss of too many pupils in the crossing.

3. And there is the frequent inclination to drop reading instruction after the fourth grade, substituting for it the application of the skill carried over from the previous years. Under such circumstances, if the skill is limited, the child falters and even his previous pace of advancement is broken. Once out of step with his own capacity for growth, he may never regain his learning tempo. The mere correction of errors as a child reads aloud is no substitute for good reading instruction.

4. Some primary teachers don't extend their techniques to the place where they study the learning procedures of each child, to determine which tend to get visual images of words, which seem to remember best in terms of touch or movement, and which depend heavily upon sound in recalling words. The potentially good teacher may still be applying approved teaching techniques in a wholesale manner without driving on through as a real student to match technique and child.

5. And a few teachers, in seeking proper learning conditions, substitute folded hands for busy hands, and absolute silence for the natural sounds of industry. For the proper control of a group of children there is no substitute for a meaningful program of things to be done.

6. Now and then an upper grade classroom reveals an absence of any systematic plan for teaching children the use of the dictionary as a tool to language. Instruction in how to use the dictionary effectively in attacking strange words, as a method of word perception, as a means of securing meaning or sound or both, is the right of the upper grade child.

7. Attention span is significant in the reading program. The short attention span that presents itself in primary classrooms is the type of thing that distinguishes stellar teaching from the average. Only a teacher who is a student of the job can determine if limited attention on the part of the primary child is indication of a natural characteristic of the child of that age, the nature of the activity, physical limitations, or something else.

8. It is not easy for a beginning primary teacher to determine

if a child's reading difficulties represent lack of proper interpretation or lack of ability to recognize word forms or symbols thereof. It is an instructional ability that must be sought rather than taken for granted.

9. A teacher may do well in direct instruction in reading and then fail to arrange properly the next step, independent reading under controlled classroom conditions. An essential step between direct instruction and the child's own application of this learning is a carefully planned independent reading program in the room, that enables the teacher to check the results of the more formal work. The teacher's recommendation of every book or selection to be read or the requirement of a report on everything read shows poor planning. The arrangement of this part of the reading program calls for as much care and thought as does the more direct instruction.

10. Some teachers who are anxious to bring interest and motivation to their classrooms need to be cautioned against the overstimulation that comes to the children when the learning situation is overdone.

11. The teacher who uses oral reading needs to understand if the child doing the reading is concerned with the meaning of what he is reading or merely the pronunciation of the words. The presence or absence of such a concern on the teacher's part may very well indicate the difference between good and poor teaching.

Diagnosing reading ability. The good supervisor helps the beginning teacher with that ever common problem of the slow reader. Determining the present reading level and the potential reading level of a pupil is a skill that should be standard equipment with every elementary teacher. In respect to this, the supervisor who is a student of his field is in a position to make suggestions and cite references to the teacher. Kathleen Hester, a worker in this field, has made these suggestions:

To answer the question, "At what level can he read now?" you must first find the child's achievement level. The following procedure may be used. Have the child read a page orally at sight from a reader of a well-graded series, at a level below the level at which you think he can succeed. Count the number of errors he makes. Ask him questions about the story he has read. Count the number of words read.

Continue to let him read from more advanced readers until he misses

an average of one word in twenty running words and answers incorrectly more than one out of ten questions. If, for example, the child begins with a primer, and can read it successfully, let him try a first grade reader. Continue upwards until he makes an average of one error in twenty running words and misses one out of ten questions. The grade level of this book is his achievement level. This is the level at which his instruction should begin.

To find out if the child has the mental ability to read as well as his classmates, again take a well-graded series of readers. Read a story to the child from one of them. Let him retell it to you in his own words. Discuss it with him until you are sure he has understood it. Then take a story from the book at the next higher level. Do the same thing. Continue until you reach a level at which the child is unable to discuss intelligently the material read to him. The highest level at which he can understand the story is the level at which he has the mental ability or capacity to read with comprehension.

The difference between the level at which he can understand the stories and the achievement level, or present reading level, tells you how much gain you may expect the child to make. If a pupil has the ability to understand and discuss the stories at fifth grade level, but actually reads at second grade level, as indicated by the informal achievement check, you may expect him to make a three year gain.¹

The points just treated represent but a sampling of the multitude of minute instructional practices which, if added together, make up the instructional output in the field of reading. For the purpose here, the examples could just as well have been taken from any or all of the areas of instructional effort. Our concern is the supervisor's ability to help teachers on the job. The possibilities for good instruction, as summed up in these examples of practice, represent the challenge to supervisory leadership.

SAMPLING THE LANGUAGE ARTS

There is no area of instruction of greater significance than the language arts. And apparently none more difficult to handle, as attested by the fatalities that accompany classroom language skirmishes all over this land. The difficulties of children at the learning-end are matched only by those of teachers at the instructional-end. Parents and laymen also have their difficulties in understanding why we haven't brought all the children up to a common level of proficiency in spelling, reading, or writing.

¹ Kathleen Hester, "The Slow Reader Learns to Talk," *Book Talk* (Chicago: Laidlaw Brothers), 4:1 (April, 1949), p. 1.

Isn't it surprising that the school subject that bothers the American most is his own native language? The inability of the pupil to cope with his own language has been reflected in American schools by heavy retardation at the first grade of the elementary school, the first year of high school, and the first year of college. The heavy mortality that characterizes the freshman college English course is but a dying echo of the mortality found at the first step of the educational ladder. As educators struggled with the problem of teaching language, they provided remedial English classes at the upper levels and from the same bolt of goods they cut out the junior primary pattern for the lower-level school.

The use of language is going to continue to be difficult, and consequently the teaching of it will continue to be a challenge. The use of language is difficult because it represents thinking, and clear thinking has apparently always been something of a chore for mankind. The affairs of men seem to attest to this. In his oral expression, a person can say "ain't," or "damn," or some other pet word without thinking, but he can't go much beyond. The use of language represents communicating, and even the highly educated person seems to find difficulty in expressing himself to a colleague. To his vocabulary he adds his gestures, his grin, and his grimaces, but he still has trouble in getting his own ideas across.

In spite of the difficulties in this field, there is another side to the language picture. It is the redeeming side, one of its satisfactions. The satisfaction of good teachers in achieving results in this field are matched by the satisfaction of children in their accomplishments. Teaching returns are indeed rewarding as children improve their mastery of the fundamental language tools, a mastery that comes more readily when the language being used is in connection with one's own affairs. It must be a great satisfaction to a growing child to be able to express a feeling or an idea that is straining to be released. It must be a great satisfaction to a supervisor to contribute to this accomplishment.

The relationship of language arts to social studies. As we look back to the off-the-cuff instructional discussions that engage supervisors and teachers in the schools, it is interesting to see how many of them have to do with language and social studies. This is largely due to the fact that language forms the trunk of the elementary school curriculum and that social studies is so closely related that

it is difficult to give instruction in one without instructing in the other. Or perhaps they form a common trunk of intertwined branches. The content of the program of oral and written language comprises the things that people do, and that makes up social studies. In turn, the child's key to the door of the social studies as it is ordinarily taught is his language ability—his ability to read, to speak, and to write—his ability to comprehend and to explain. The content of the readers used in today's school is taken from the social scene, the reactions of children and their elders in social situations.

The opening period of the day. The interlocking of language and social studies begins with the opening of the day in many elementary classrooms. Work begins with the oral reporting of the news, both the big events and the little, the little being also big in the lives of little people. In the case of the primary children the news is of their own affairs, for their social concepts go little beyond, and from these affairs the teacher develops the story that in turn becomes a lesson in reading as well as one in living and working with one's fellows. We have all seen excellent teaching there, children gaining not only language facility and social sensitivity but self-assurance as they stand before the group to express their thoughts. Here we see teachers skillfully directing the performance so that it meets the high purposes they hold for the period. And certainly in that morning period children are being taught to think.

And now and then, more often in the grades above, the oral language-news period falls into the mediocrity of routine, in which such things as these invite supervisory attention:

A child gives an inadequate report of a news event and no effort is made to bring out class understanding, or

The teacher turns the period over to a student chairman and busies herself at her desk with the routines of the morning, or

Poor enunciation is permitted to go unchallenged, or

The news items reported stand alone, no effort being made to lead the class to common social understanding and appreciation, or

The work of the period is permitted to stand alone as an opening exercise, no attempt being made to relate it meaningfully to something later in the school day.

The best of lawns can become a haven for weeds before the keeper realizes it. A good instructional program likewise calls for

constant attention. A classroom that was a stimulating place five years ago may be a dull place today. The supervisor or the principal must constantly make the rounds with the supervisory rake, and keep the soil stirred up. Perhaps at no other time of the day are the office duties of the principal so compelling as they are at the opening of the school day. And likewise, perhaps at no other period of the day is the supervisory help of the principal more needed than at this initial instructional exercise. Its many educational potentialities can best be attained with careful supervisory leadership. The principal or supervisor wishing to take full educational advantage of this period, first makes himself aware of the total present practice in the school. With this background, he can then move to improvement of practice, working co-operatively with the staff to determine sound goals and promising instructional steps.

Almost everything that a teacher does in a classroom should be based on a definite plan to improve the thinking and the actions of children, and should be so tested. In respect to this opening period, the principal or supervisor can do a great service to the teacher in helping her to see how much change the work makes in the group, in the course of a term, in such things as the ability to think and speak on one's feet, and the ability to see cause and effect in current events and in the current affairs of one's immediate surroundings.

Auditorium situations. Good supervision helps a teacher to use the school auditorium as a stimulus in her oral language program. In some schools only the student government meetings or an occasional rehearsed program find a place on the stage. Other schools skillfully use the auditorium as an important arm of the classroom, just as they do the school library and the field trip into the community. The teacher of the fourth, fifth, or sixth grade might take advantage of the opportunity to use the auditorium as a compelling setting for an oral discussion, for oral reports, or for simple dramatics. A good teacher can occasionally take advantage of the stage to add something that a regular classroom can't give to language instruction.

In the area of language, listening habits come in for attention. Here and there a teacher seems to lack an appreciation of the significance of the child's listening capacity, or fail to show a specific plan for helping him to develop it. Today's television and radio child lives in a world of sounds, and by experience he learns early to

be oblivious of them when attending to more attractive matters. The teacher cannot take classroom listening for granted, because today's child has already conditioned himself to his world of devious sounds. Instruction and practice in attentive classroom listening are necessary.

THE SPELLING PROGRAM

Another aspect of the language program and one that always needs supervisory attention is spelling. Inviting continued thought and attention is the close instructional relationship that is maintained between spelling and writing. To most teachers it seems both natural and pedagogically sound to teach spelling through writing, because a child will exercise his ability to spell in written rather than in oral situations. Furthermore, busy teachers have always found it expedient to read the list of spelling words for the class to write and to check the written lists for errors. It can be said that working from the spoken vocabulary to the reading vocabulary and on to the written vocabulary has long since become a natural part of the teacher's involuntary action.

There are at least two commonly found situations in life where people spell their words aloud. One is the spelling contest which was taken over by the nation's newspapers when it lost ground in the schools. Then there is the home situation of two parents or adults spelling words aloud as a secret code to prevent the understanding of their conversation by a young child whose ears are big enough to recognize the spoken word but are not yet big enough to recognize the word spelled out.

Perhaps those of us who in our childhood were among the last standing in those Friday afternoon spell-downs are egotistical enough to hesitate to turn our backs completely on oral spelling. What are the principles of word pronunciation and sounding that we should respect? We know that good teachers give attention to the child's oral pronunciation of new words as an important step in learning to spell them. The exact procedures and values of each are commonly discussed by a teacher and a supervisor. On the other hand, they are more and more appreciative of the fact that one's ability in spelling will ultimately be tested on the written page, with words that are a part of his thoughts.

Confusing the teaching of two things. Our immediate concern then is the teacher's dependency upon written language in teaching

spelling. Supervision notes the apparent willingness of some teachers at about the third or fourth grade level to permit accomplishment in spelling to suffer because of a child's difficulties in moving from manuscript to cursive writing. Today, the third grade is the common grade for the transition from manuscript to cursive. To what degree does a child's lack of facility in cursive writing act as a barrier to his success in spelling his words, because his spelling must be demonstrated through writing? For most groups of children moving from manuscript to cursive writing, there is a period of time in which the teacher must protect the child's work in spelling from the extra strain that comes with forming and attaching letters in the manner commonly known to teachers as cursive writing.

Improvement in cursive writing seems to call for much more practice than does improvement in manuscript writing. To what extent do we underestimate the length of time that it takes a child to feel at home in the new method of expressing himself? Students of this field point out that especially the left-handed child finds the forming of loops in cursive writing a new and difficult task not encountered in manuscript.

Some have said that for the young child, forming his letters serves as a drawing exercise rather than as one in writing. As long as the child concentrates so intently on the form of the letter, and on the strange patterns represented in the connection of letters in cursive writing, to what extent should the teacher be hesitant in adding the difficulties of spelling to the emotional and physical strains already represented?

In seeking the answer to such questions, supervision recalls the classrooms of good teachers all over the school system, and the differentiation of instruction found there. Although some third grade children are using cursive in writing their spelling lists, others are still using manuscript writing. In some instances we have seen a child use cursive for one word in a list and resort to manuscript for another, with no penalty attached. For some children, the practice in cursive writing is retained for situations other than the spelling lesson, situations devoid of those additional emotional tensions so often injected in the so-called spelling lesson by the checking for errors.

Teachers are not losing anything in this individualized instruction approach, because they do not want children to lose their facility

in manuscript writing as they add cursive to their kit of language tools. Good supervision will be concerned about these differences among children and will see that procedures in spelling respect such knowledge.

Spelling lists. A second aspect of spelling commonly considered by supervision is the old controversy of teaching through a standardized program of graded lists of words as opposed to a teacher's capitalization upon the words in the everyday classroom experience of children and the consequent development of a spelling program upon such words. It need not be an either-or proposition.

Publishers, in their sets of spellers, have for the most part built their lists upon the words most frequently used by adults. It is said that the number of words in fifteen sets of spellers range from 2,500 to 4,800. The median number is around 3,800, reflecting the research that has shown that after the first 3,000 adult words chosen on the basis of frequency, it becomes a difficult task to find words that are apt to be written frequently enough by the ordinary man to justify their inclusion in a basic spelling list. The absence of such indicates the difficulty in making an adequate study of the vocabulary of children's writing that provides the frequency of usage of the words. This streamlined review of the research in spelling usage means about this: the spelling lists in basic texts will reflect adult usage rather than child usage.

It is no surprise that good elementary school teachers supplement the basic spelling program with words taken from the everyday experience of their children. Some educational theorists would use this approach exclusively. Supervisors have argued loud and long about this so-called incidental method of teaching spelling as opposed to the more formal standardized word list approach. When it is done correctly, it is not incidental. The teacher does not stop with the minimal standardized list, but develops out of the meaningful experience of the class lists of words to spell, the spelling being learned not for the sake of a spelling program as such, but because these children want to express themselves in writing and need these words to give them the satisfaction they deserve in this meaningful enterprise.

To develop such a spelling vocabulary out of the lives of the children, and then to fail to follow up with the use of the words in written language would be a case of going around Robin's barn for

naught. Children learn to do by doing, and in a language program there is no substitute for practice. A sound spelling program is dependent upon practice in written expression. However, such practice has to have a sound foundation. What are the specific approaches to be recommended for the classrooms? When, how much, and what practice shall be included in our language instruction are questions to be answered in any sound supervisory program.

It has been accepted that there is approximately a 60 per cent resemblance between the vocabulary of children and adults, this being more true of the vocabulary of children from fifth grade on up. For that reason it would seem that in the third and fourth grades, perhaps more than in the grades above, there should be demonstrated an active program of supplementing the words in the basic speller with words frequently used in the common experiences of the children. Inasmuch as the adult vocabulary has never been looked upon as serving the vocabulary needs of younger children, there is in those grades a most active program in the development of spelling lists out of the everyday experiences of the children.

Invariably the argument raised against a spelling program that is originated on the spot, with no minimal standardized lists as represented in a basic text, is one questioning the industry or ingenuity of some teachers in the school. In some classrooms there lingers the old habit of failing to teach spelling so that the children secure the excitement of putting their words to work for them. Every child deserves the satisfaction of feeling the power of independent spelling in putting his ideas on paper. It is well to say that no program of instruction, spelling or otherwise, is going to rise much above the level of the supervisory leadership.

In the grades above the primary, supervision guards against a teacher's neglecting to provide the sequence of steps necessary in a spelling program. A few teachers still tend to throw the responsibility to the child by giving him the list of new words at the beginning of the week, and telling him to study them for Friday's test. To tell a child to study must be predicated on his knowledge of the steps to be taken in such study. That's where good teaching comes in, where good supervision is essential. How does the average child attack a new word? In this connection, the work of the supervisor should not be limited to what to teach. It needs to treat also the how. It's quite possible that the child who is permitted to get by with

sloppy diction in one part of the school day will have greater difficulty with spelling in another.

OTHER LANGUAGE PROBLEMS

The questions just raised have touched upon but a few of the aspects of language arts. Another field is dramatics, another is written expression, and yet another is serving the gifted child through language experiences. There are also many others. Perhaps language is something that snowballs for a child as he progresses through the grades. In any language instruction there is no substitute for practice. Once the child is able to put a thought down on paper in a few words, which we call a sentence, in every grade from then on he should encounter consistent practice in doing so. This is not an appeal for a dry and mechanical program, but for one that is rich and functional.

As the child progresses through school his simple sentences grow into more complex ones, his sentences grow into paragraphs, and his paragraphs into stories, because he has more to say. The fifth or sixth grade child who is writing compound and complex sentences should be doing so not because of a formal lesson in the mechanics of language in the course of study; he should be writing them because his thoughts are complex enough to demand that mode of expression to satisfy him. On the other hand, the teacher who permits the bright eleven-year-old to continue to express himself only in short, stubby sentences is sacrificing manpower in a denial of the American principle of individual worth.

There is also the failure of some elementary teachers to set up their own bookkeeping systems so that they have a fairly good idea of the accomplishments of each pupil in the various aspects of the total program. The good teacher breaks down his instructional goal into a few salient growth features. The poor teacher is a slave to the points on the home report card and limits his judgment of pupil growth to such recordings.

HELPING SELECT AND PROCURE MATERIALS

The supervisor's concern for the classroom is not limited to what is taught and how it is taught. In the average supervisor's office there is much detail in the provision of instructional materials for the schools. It seems natural for this office to carry a heavy respon-

sibility, in this matter. In a large system there is a purchasing agent, but such an office needs the direction of those who know instruction. The effectiveness of instruction depends greatly upon proper facilities. The proceedings of both state and national supervisory conferences reveal the common acceptance of this responsibility by supervisors. There is apparent a desire to improve practices in this field. Effort is commonly guided by a few sound principles.

1. *The democratic selection of materials.* Those who are to use the materials are brought in to help in the selection.

2. *The knowledge of materials.* The supervisor becomes well acquainted with the availability of the various materials of instruction. For instance, the supervisor of kindergarten and primary classes knows the various types of building blocks and the sources of supply. If it is a question of the adoption of textbooks for a particular subject, the supervisor sees that all the possible books are available for study by the committee.

3. *The relative effectiveness of materials.* A classroom can easily become cluttered with excess or useless equipment. Limited budgets usually prevent this, but it is better that supervisors should do so. This means a knowledge of the instructional effectiveness of the various items. There often needs to be a tryout and evaluation of an item in a classroom situation.

It is not unusual for the more experienced teachers to tend to fill their closets with books from an earlier period. New adoptions should be balanced with the discard of outdated books. Here again is the principal or supervisor's responsibility for leadership.

4. *The systematic extension of information about materials.* The knowledge of the materials available should be spread to all teachers. One popular means of doing this has been the creation of a materials center. County offices often follow the plan of setting up such a central laboratory to which teachers may come to examine the various instructional materials available. Demonstrations can be arranged at the center from time to time. The center is just as effective in a city situation. Every school system needs a central library that contains a copy of each book adopted for use.

5. *Equalization in the distribution of materials.* On the surface this may seem to be a simple accounting procedure involving fixed quotas or formulas. This is not the case. Supervisory leadership adds the knowledge of the various school conditions.

6. *Maximum use of materials.* Most schools have to secure full returns on their investment. Central storage, delivery service, and promotion of the use of materials are but a few of the approaches to this end. These are concerns of the supervisor.

TEXTBOOK SELECTION

Upon supervision commonly falls the responsibility for the selection of textbooks, supplementary books, and library books. In an adoption the challenge is to work through competent committees of teachers, supplying them with samples of the books available and a well-formulated score card by which they can systematically rate the books they study. The tryout of books in the classrooms is often included as a feature of such a study program.

In many states adoptions of basic texts are handled on a state basis. In such instances it is common for the examination and study of the sample texts to be made by committees of qualified teachers and supervisors. This is the sound professional procedure for a state board of education to follow.

In California the textbooks for elementary schools are adopted and furnished at the state level. The responsibility for the adoptions rests with the State Board of Education. They delegate the study to the State Curriculum Commission and follow the recommendations of that body of school practitioners. The ten members of this Commission set up competent committees in all sections of the state, in counties, cities, and towns, to study the books and to rate them by means of a common score card developed by the Commission. By tabulating the score sheets of twenty or thirty committees of teachers and supervisors, the Commission is in a position to come to a decision and make the recommendation to the State Board.

Score cards. Such a system reflects supervisory leadership at the local level. The influence of the supervisor in the local committee setting is carried on up to the state level in such an adoption. In a recent state reading adoption for grades one through five, as many as 1,000 teachers and supervisors, in about 30 committees, worked intensively for four or five months on the adoption. And five score cards were used in the rating system. They were:

1. Score card for basic textbooks, grade one.
2. Score card for basic textbooks, grades two and three.
3. Score card for basic textbooks, grades four and five.

TABLE 7

SCORE CARD FOR EVALUATING BASIC READING TEXTBOOKS
GRADES TWO AND THREE²

<i>Criteria</i>	<i>Weightings</i>
1. AMOUNT OF MATERIAL.....	200
a. Second-grade books A second reader that utilizes and extends the basic vocabulary of the previous books in the series. It broadens interests and continues to emphasize meaningful reading. b. Third-grade books A third reader which provides for increased independence in reading, promotes reading with comprehension and understanding, and further develops basic habits and skills.	
2. APPROPRIATENESS OF MATERIAL TO THE CHILDREN'S CAPABILITIES.....	250
a. The concepts treated in the material must be within the understanding of pupils of the grades for which the series is intended and must be designed to extend and enrich pupils' experiences and vocabularies. b. The reading difficulty of the materials must be appropriate. <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Vocabulary should be systematically controlled and drawn from word lists which have been developed through research studies of children's interests and abilities. 2) There should be a carefully planned and consistent introduction and repetition of new words to promote mastery. This should not be done in a manner that decreases interest. 3) Sentence structure must be simple and direct. 4) Paragraphs should be short and well organized. 	
3. NATURE AND QUALITY OF MATERIAL.....	175
a. It should appeal to a wide variety of authentic interests of children. It should provide action, elements of surprise, and humor. b. It should be well written and possess simplicity, beauty, and imaginative quality. It should be free from crude English.	
4. ILLUSTRATIONS.....	100
The illustrations should contribute to the learning experiences of children and <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. be simple in form and relatively large b. be pleasing in color and sufficient in amount c. illustrate the story d. stimulate discussion relative to children's experiences and which leads to use of the vocabulary to be read e. meet good art standards f. be meaningful and interesting to the children g. represent various socio-economic and racial groups of American children. 	

²Developed by the California State Curriculum Commission for the 1953 reading adoption.

TABLE 7 (Continued)

Criteria	Weightings
5. ORGANIZATION.....	100
The material must show evidence of having been carefully planned and developed in accordance with best procedures of instruction.	
6. FORMAT.....	75
a. The books should be of good quality and attractive to children.	
b. The size of type should be suitable for the age level of children who read it.	
c. Use of margins, arrangement of material, and cover design should conform with good design and practice.	
7. AIDS FOR TEACHERS.....	100
a. A teacher's manual must accompany the series. It should suggest activities and procedures for both pupils and teachers.	
b. Workbooks of as good quality as the textbooks should be available for local district purchase.	
c. A variety of exercises for checking pupil comprehension should be included.	
TOTAL	1000

4. Score card for supplementary textbooks, grades one through three.

5. Score card for supplementary textbooks, grades four and five.

In Table 7 are presented the criteria for evaluation which made up one of these score cards. There is no school too small to handle its book adoptions on a sound educational basis. There is no piece of instructional equipment too unimportant to demand care in its selection.

THE CLASSROOM HOLDS ATTENTION

If considered alone, textbook selection and techniques of teaching in reading and language arts present a somewhat limiting and technical description of supervision. But the treatment which has just been covered must, of necessity, be recalled as one—and only one—aspect of the larger and more complete study we are presently engaged in making.

As indicated in Chapter 9, some have even questioned the need of the supervisor being a master teacher. However, it is somewhat inconceivable that an elementary supervisor who spends most of his working day out in the schools can be of ready service unless he possesses the knowledge of preferred practice such as that implied in the examples above. With the shortage of fully trained elementary teachers today, certainly a general supervisor in this field should be well versed in instructional procedures in the basic area of reading and language arts. This need not be a bold supervisory front that implies all the answers. But it should be one that commands confidence in the supervisor's ability to help.

The elementary school door is always open to the helpful supervisor; it always has been. The process of supervision is best carried out when it is well fed, when it is stimulated by the classroom itself. Direct attention to the classroom will continue to be a major aspect of elementary school supervision. This need not detract from nor limit the more recently developed forms of supervision, such as curriculum study, in-service training, and group planning. As was indicated in a previous section of the book, supervision will continue to move on two fronts. One is the broader program of continuous school improvement through co-operative study and action; the other is the program of direct aid to the teacher in the problems he faces at the moment.

For Further Consideration

In the case of elementary school supervision in the average school system, to what extent is the service devoted to helping teachers who lack adequate training? Is this to be accepted as the major responsibility of supervision during this period of teacher shortages? Which of the many phases of language arts are being taught more efficiently in conjunction? What amount of lesson planning does the average teacher in the elementary school need to do to assure a well-balanced program? How much attention should the supervisor give to such details as the teacher's lesson plan? How much time should supervisors give to the selection of instructional supplies and equipment?

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16

Curriculum Planning

WITHOUT a doubt, curriculum planning now monopolizes instructional leadership at both the local and the state levels. This is readily understandable. American education has unconditionally underwritten the proposal that the curriculum needs to be adjusted to the learner, rather than warping the learner to fit a fixed school program. Consequently, the schools have accepted curriculum study as an essential part of the teaching job. Coupled with this condition is supervision's eagerness to attend to something in the teacher's classroom other than the teacher himself. Teamed together these two represent a co-ordinated force that dominates supervisory and in-service effort.

THE THEORY OF THE FUNCTIONAL CURRICULUM

This idea of instructional adjustment might be called the theory of a functional curriculum. That is, the value of a curriculum or any segment of it lies not in itself but in its service to the learner. What may be functional for one may not be for another; what may be functional at one time may not be at another; and what may be functional in one location may not be in another. Providing an effective program then becomes a matter of properly matching two variables, the curriculum and the learner. Guidance has come in to place the learner with the right curriculum; and curriculum planning, to provide the proper program possibilities lest the placement effort be for naught.

This point of view does not deny the necessity of certain constants in a school curriculum. For instance, the study of our own language is going to continue to be a basic feature of the school's

program. Reading, writing, and oral language will be constants in both the elementary and secondary school, but as basic offerings they still demand consideration of the individual to be served by them.

School leadership is no longer willing to accept an inherited program as unquestionably bona fide education. Nor is it willing to accept the nineteenth century fallacy that the program which serves one serves all. Curriculum study in the schools has been widespread during the past quarter of a century. The trend toward a functional curriculum has been evident.¹

Example one: first grade. One example of this trend is what has happened to the first grade program. As late as 1915 or 1920, the first grade curriculum was a somewhat standardized program with limited provision for adjustment. The science of measurement revealed that the child who succeeded there needed to enter the grade with a mental age of approximately 6.3. Only a fixed curriculum would have enabled such close accounting of the mental maturity necessary for success. The wide variation in ability among the children entering the grade meant heavy retardation. The rigidity of the program left the teacher no recourse, and American education was failing as many as a quarter of its first graders.

In time, curriculum study was centered upon this problem. Individual differences were respected, and variations in instructional practice resulted. At first no change was made in the regular first grade. The findings of curriculum planning were relegated to an intermediate or transitionary grade between kindergarten and first grade. It was known as the junior primary, the preprimary, or the vestibule class. A later move has been to discontinue this extra step in the educational ladder, incorporating its good methods in the first grade. Thus was accepted once and for all the idea that the

¹ The subject of curriculum planning is one of deep interest to the writer. He has attempted not to duplicate in this chapter treatments in his previous books on the subject, but refers the reader to them for elaboration of the topic. *The Teacher and Curriculum Planning*, New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951. *The High School for Today*, New York: American Book Company, 1950. *Some Principles of Teaching*, New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949. *The Emerging High-School Curriculum*, New York: American Book Company, Revised Edition, 1949. *Experiences in Building a Curriculum*, New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937.

first grade can function in the school lives of all who enter it, by adjusting its program to the pupil. For instance, the discontinuance of junior primary classes in a city such as San Francisco resulted from curriculum study at the local level.

Example two: English instruction. A second example of this relentless study of the curriculum is found in the high school English field. In this case the period of time roughly approximates that of the first grade transition treated above; however, the change is not yet so completely effected.

Curriculum study in this field has effected functionalism through two means, the extension of the number of offerings and the improvement of methods of instruction within the courses. Earlier in this century the English program of a four-year high school was limited to four rather well-crystallized courses, each containing some literary selections and some exercises in written composition. However, practice in writing was quite limited because of drill upon mechanics. The method of instruction was the recitation, with uniform assignments for all members of a class.

The common dissatisfaction of teachers with their instructional accomplishments under this fixed program has acted as an incentive to co-operative curriculum planning in this field. Down through the past two or three decades great strides have been taken by English teachers in replanning their instructional program to serve the various students going through the school. A few of the typical functional accomplishments have been:

1. The addition of oral English as a field of endeavor fully as worthy of attention as written expression.
2. The broad extension of offerings, including instruction in dramatics, speech, journalism, and modern literature.
3. The recognition of participation and practice in written expression as major essentials in the program.
4. The integration of language instruction with instruction in closely related areas such as the social studies and the arts.
5. The variation of classroom methods to include laboratory procedures and the individualization of instruction.
6. The enrichment for brighter pupils, balanced with the development of remedial procedures for helping those pupils handicapped in reading and expression.

Not only has co-operative curriculum study become popular in school systems all over the land, but such study has as a compelling incentive programs which function in the lives of the students.

DISTRIBUTION LAGS BEHIND PRODUCTION

Curriculum planning on a co-operative basis has been big business in American education for about a quarter of a century, and like any other big business in America it has two main operations: production and distribution. It has just about mastered the first, but not the second.

The production. The immediate goal of most curriculum committees is the publication of a teaching guide, a bulletin, or some such material for teachers. The long-range goal is the improvement of instruction through the teacher's use of such guides. At times, but much less frequently, the materials developed are to be used by the pupils. Perhaps not over 5 per cent of the total of this printed output in the nation is planned for pupil use.

Almost any curriculum study group that works in an organized manner issues in the end a printed or mimeographed bulletin of some sort or other. It is true that the value of curriculum study for the participants is well recognized. However, the eventual contribution of such effort is usually judged by something that the group develops for others.

The distribution. The development of curriculum guides has long since reached the mass production stage, as attested to by the thousands of different bulletins issued each year by state and local school systems. But the value of a new teaching guide is not discernible in an examination of the document. Only the potential is apparent. The value is discovered only after the publication is in the hands of the classroom teachers, and even more, only after it has affected the child's learning.

Distribution in curriculum development is not the simple matter that the process in the business world would lead one to believe. It is not a simple process of shipping out the finished products to the teachers. Curriculum planning includes the supervision of the altered instructional effort, and only by providing supervisory leadership for this purpose can school systems expect the production of guides to affect instructional practice noticeably.

The supervision. Many school systems have had to learn the hard

way that curriculum planning and producing cannot be a staff service for teachers removed from the supervisory service. They had to go through a period of highly centralized and highly isolated curriculum departments before it was realized that the classroom implementation of bulletins so developed represented instructional effort inversely proportioned to production effort.

When school systems first installed the curriculum office, the already existing supervisory service was seldom tied into it. Curriculum leaders carried on the production while supervision handled its usual chores. In recent years the two services have been amalgamated. Those who carry responsibility for classroom supervision also carry responsibility for curriculum committees or in-service study groups.

Curriculum planning is no longer the independent enterprise that was conceived when it entered the field of teacher development. Consequently, a much greater percentage of the materials issued are used by teachers.

CURRICULUM PRINCIPLES

Curriculum planning from state to state and from school system to school system follows some generally accepted principles. These principles are reflected in common practices. Foremost are:

1. Out of the classroom situations in which teachers and supervisors work arise the occasions for curriculum study.
2. Curriculum improvement represents a continuous but reasonable study effort, rather than a highly concentrated revision that comes as a spasmodic renovation.
3. The study program enlists the maximum participation of teachers.
4. Leadership ordinarily falls upon those staff and administrative officers responsible for the supervision of instruction.
5. Resource help from outside the system is often used. Training institutions frequently lend help to schools in their vicinity.
6. The curriculum committee works closely with the classrooms, rather than isolating its study program until completed.
7. The work of a study group is not an end in itself. Its test lies in improved instruction.
8. The work does not make unreasonable demands upon the teacher's time.

9. When guides or instructional materials are prepared, there is avoided the waste of developing materials that are more easily found already done and in better form for teacher use.

10. The curriculum study program holds the confidence of both the teachers and the supervisory staff.

11. All curriculum effort must face the test of public acceptance.

THE PURPOSE OF THE CURRICULUM

When Abraham Lincoln was making his famous house-divided-against-itself speech in 1858, it is true that he wasn't thinking about a school curriculum. But it is also true that he made a statement that can stand today as the guiding principle of curriculum planning. He said, "If we could first know whither we are tending, we could better judge what to do and how to do it." *What to do* and *how to do it* are the very essence of curriculum study, but such planning is predicated on an appreciation of the true goals of education.

Training for citizenship. American public education within the century has solidified its purposes. The acceptance of common goals is apparent. These goals have to do with American citizenship, the advancement of the individual learner, and equality of educational opportunity. They invite the application of thought and learning to one's life situations.

Training for American citizenship is a compelling objective of American education. The public school reflects the unique democratic setting of its culture. The citizenship objective is broadly interpreted as the readiness to assume one's responsibilities and exercise his rights in the community life. The interpretation of the latter is not limited to civic affairs, but includes the many facets of group interaction that make up community life, such as civic, occupational, home, and recreational endeavor.

The primary child who appreciates and reveals his responsibility to the others in the group is well on his way toward proper adult civic action. The same is true of the members of a high school group who learn to attack a common problem with such democratic tools as searching for the facts and pooling their opinions.

The development of the individual. Teamed with this objective is that of developing each pupil, insofar as possible, up to the limit of his capabilities. It simply means giving each a square deal throughout his schooling. This in itself reflects the American appreciation of personal worth.

To attain this goal the public school endorses the principle of equal educational opportunity. In public education there is general acceptance of the truth that equal opportunity demands diversified offerings and methods. With the vast range of abilities and natures among children and youth it could not be different. But it has not always been so.

As long as only a small percentage of all the children of all the people went through school, the curriculum was narrow and standardized. It represented a uniform treatment prescribed by an adult hierarchy that conceived childhood as a meaningless period of life with no purpose other than grooming for the glories of adulthood. Children were given no credit for thinking; they were to be seen and not heard, and their main obligation was to do what they were told. Teaching was considered a telling proposition.

Even today there occasionally steps upon the public platform a prophet out of the past who discredits the capacity of children to reason, and minimizes the significance of their purposes and their differences. He does so when he prescribes a common curriculum for all and substitutes force as an incentive for learning. *A philosopher can devote himself to what the child ought to know, but only the teacher can determine what the child is capable of learning.* Unfortunately, the philosopher is more apt to find a place on a public platform than a teacher.

Educational leadership refuses to be deterred by such throw-backs. Differentiated curriculums, respect for personal differences in the classroom, learning situations planned to provoke thought, individual instead of group standards of accomplishment, and a horde of similarly promising approaches mark instructional practice today as both scientific and democratic. The public school refuses to trade its democratic birthright for a mess of medieval pottage. Instead, it solidifies its pedagogical gains to date and charts further curriculum advancement. Its major goals—training for American citizenship and the maximum intellectual release of the individual learner—still spark the movement.

The greatest advance in American education in this century has been the discovery of the child's personality. It has set in motion the intensive study of the curriculum. It has opened the door to a profession. No longer can just anybody "keep school." Professional ingenuity is called upon to cope with the challenge of the unique

personality of each child, for in the full release of the competency of each personality rests the hope of America.

Schools define their goals. The public schools of Salt Lake City have pointed out that their function is to assist all pupils in achieving maximum adjustment to all phases of living through effective experiences and activities.² Their intentions are:

1. To develop an abiding faith in, and an understanding of democracy.
2. To promote physical, mental, and emotional health.
3. To cultivate a wholesome philosophy of life.
4. To develop aesthetic insights and satisfactions.
5. To promote the appropriate use of man's resources and environment.
6. To build a foundation for vocational competency.
7. To develop an effective command of basic study skills.

Almost any school system that engages in curriculum study includes the definition of instructional goals in the early stages of planning. It is a necessary and wholesome phase of the program, but should not monopolize the study effort. The statement of purposes and their refinement as a seminar type activity can become highly engrossing, but such activity must not become an end in itself. A list of high purposes bears no nourishment for a school child unless supervisors and teachers provide the meat.

ORGANIZING FOR CURRICULUM STUDY

Our concern here is mainly with the *how* of curriculum planning, not the *what*. How instructional leadership pools its resources to effect continuous curriculum improvement represents the major emphasis of this chapter.

The organization for curriculum study at the local level commonly respects the eleven principles cited earlier in the chapter. In the examples that follow will be noted this adherence to basic action. The Kalamazoo and Atlantic City examples reflect the broad participation of teachers—principle 3. The Lakewood example shows the concern for the teacher's time—principle 8. The practice of attacking common classroom problems is also seen in the Atlantic City example—principle 1.

² Salt Lake City Public Schools, *Curriculum Foundation Revision*, 1952, p. 3.

KALAMAZOO'S CURRICULUM COUNCIL

Curriculum study in Kalamazoo, Michigan, fans out from a Curriculum Council, composed of representatives for each school, each department, the Parent-Teacher Association, the American Association of University Women, the Chamber of Commerce, Labor, and the students. The Council has several subcommittees, the study groups, all of which are system-wide in nature and in representation.³ The Council meets once a month and the various committees at least once a month. The chairmen of all subcommittees are members of the Council. In the spring the Council holds a two-day meeting at a camp, hearing reports of the committees, evaluating work to date, and projecting curriculum endeavor for the next year.

Council Membership

1 Representative elected by each school or a combination of small schools	15
1 Representative elected by the specialized subject matter areas of music, art, physical education, industrial arts, and home economics (a few representatives represent both these areas and schools)	5
1 Representative elected by the senior high school subject matter departments (social studies, language arts, science, mathematics and business education)	5
4 Administrative staff members	4
1 Representative elected by the supervisors	1
1 Representative elected by the principals	1
20 Representatives of the P.-T. A.	20
1 Representative elected by special education	1
2 Student representatives elected by the senior high school government	2
1 Representative elected by the Kalamazoo Federation of Labor	1
1 Representative elected by the Junior Chamber of Commerce	1
1 Representative elected by the Social Agencies	1
2 Recent high school graduates (1 vocational worker, 1 college student)	2
1 Representative elected by the Department of Research and Guidance	1
1 Representative elected by the Parent Education Council ...	1
22 Chairmen of curriculum committees	22
4 Representatives of the A.A.U.W.	4

³ Material supplied by Superintendent Loy Norrix of Kalamazoo.

Curriculum Committees

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Public Relations Committee | 12. Intercultural Workshop |
| 2. All-School Reading Committee | 13. Unified Studies Committee |
| 3. General Education Committee | 14. All-School Audio-Visual Education Committee |
| 4. Special Education Committee | 15. Child Growth and Development Committee |
| 5. All-School Social Studies Committee | 16. Professional Growth Committee |
| 6. Junior High School Curriculum Committee | 17. Central High School Curriculum Evaluation Committee |
| 7. Citizenship Education Committee | 18. Industrial Arts Committee |
| 8. Mathematics Committee | 19. Home Economics Committee |
| 9. Social Travel Committee | 20. Art Committee |
| 10. Science Committee | 21. Music Committee |
| 11. Primary Unit Committee | 22. Physical Education and Health Committee |

ATLANTIC CITY'S STUDY PROGRAM

The present curriculum study program in Atlantic City represents in part a carryover from a previous administration. For the most part it is a response to a superintendent's bulletin in which the teachers were asked if they would be interested in meeting together on an organized basis to discuss common instructional problems.¹

Out of a total staff of 350 teachers, administrators, and supervisors, 250 returned their unsigned questionnaire blanks expressing the desire to engage in the study program. A committee was then appointed by the superintendent to work out the plan. The interests of the participants were recognized and these study groups were set up for the first year:

Language arts	—3 groups
Administration and supervision	—2 groups
Social studies	—2 groups
Science	—2 groups
Child study	—1 group
Arithmetic	—1 group

Each group was limited to 20 members, to promote active participation. Attention was given to the requisites of a good leader before chairmen were selected. In order to provide variety to the program, a schedule of activity periods was added, including arts and crafts, folk and square dancing, music, audio-visual aids, and science experi-

¹ Materials were supplied by Superintendent John Milligan of Atlantic City.

ments. Provision was made to use guest speakers in three of the study group meetings. From the early planning in the groups came these objectives:

- To think together on a common problem.
- To stimulate a professional attitude.
- To give a broader view of the curriculum.
- To improve articulation in all levels of the school program.
- To learn to do things by special method.
- To gain greater respect for each other as individuals.
- To improve their own work.

To emphasize the importance of group leadership, and develop working techniques, three special meetings were devoted to the training of leaders and recorders. An extra meeting was held for recorders, to outline and discuss their particular duties. One of the printed reports issued deals with teaching controversial issues.

Teaching controversial issues. Atlantic City's public schools have assumed "the moral obligation to instill in every youngster a devotion to our democratic principles, to create an awareness of his rights and responsibilities, to help him appreciate the fact that honest differences of opinion exist, and to stimulate in him a desire to perfect himself as an American citizen through actual experience and active participation in democratic living." In keeping with these high intentions, a statement of policies for dealing with controversial issues has been developed by a curriculum committee, approved as Board of Education policy, and issued to all teachers.⁵ The bulletin sets out these ten points:

1. A question is controversial when one or more of the proposed answers give rise to such difference of opinion as to cause strong reaction among the citizenry.
2. The consideration of controversial questions has a legitimate place in the work of the public schools. School treatment of debatable issues should promote fair and many-sided study of those questions; it should also help the student develop techniques to weigh such issues which he will use in life.
3. Those who handle controversial questions in a school should recognize that there is more than one side to those questions. The pupil is entitled to an opportunity to look at the facts from all angles and to form his own opinion in an atmosphere of freedom. Only thus does he become a truly free man who can evaluate and appreciate what it means to live in a democracy.

⁵ Atlantic City Public Schools, *Criteria Dealing with Controversial Issues*, 1952.

A controversial question, with its relationship to the past and the present, should be handled by a teacher prepared for such a responsibility.

4. The wise teacher avoids going into a controversial question beyond his own depth. A student would better be uninformed about a question than misinformed about it.

5. The decision whether a controversial question shall become a matter for school study should be based on such considerations as the timeliness of the question, the maturity and the needs of the students, and the purposes of the school.

6. In addition to the planned discussions of controversial questions there are occasions when such a question arises unexpectedly. The teacher has the responsibility of discerning its controversial nature and handling it accordingly.

7. In New Jersey the local board is, by law, responsible for determining what shall be taught in the schools, subject to general rules and regulations as prescribed by the State Board of Education.

Teachers and administrative personnel who handle controversial questions within the spirit of these policies should receive adequate protection from partisan pressures.

8. Students must be provided with adequate and varied instructional materials which present fully all sides of the controversial questions to be considered.

9. The proper avenues by which arguments on controversial questions reach students in school are the teachers holding appropriate certificates, the students themselves, and the materials furnished by direction of the local board of education.

No individual or group can claim the right to present arguments directly to students in school. Such a "right" would make the schools battlegrounds for dozens of controversies.

A citizen has a right to assume that controversial questions are being presented fairly and to protest to the board of education if convinced that they are not.

10. Teachers who deal with controversial subjects should emphasize the distinction between opinion and fact.

In a democracy we have "unity in diversity," but opinions must rest on fact. Reliance on truth is one of the glories of democracy; it is truth that keeps men free!

EVANSVILLE'S CURRICULUM COMMISSION

The hub of the curriculum program in the Evansville, Indiana, Public Schools is the Curriculum Commission, made up of some fifty teachers, principals, and supervisors. Its duty is to study, evaluate, and improve the school program on a continuing basis. It is the channel through which the contributions of the individual

teachers and schools may be refined and directed to the improvement of the entire system. Vacancies are filled by election from the entire teaching staff, assuring capable, progressive action which reflects general acceptance by the entire force. It represents each facet of the Evansville school organization.

The Commission does not work alone. It maintains close cooperation and consultation with the Parent-Teacher Association and a Citizens' Advisory Committee, as well as with the school and departmental units of the school system proper.

The Citizens' Advisory Committee is composed of about 40 representative citizens and school patrons. It is appointed by the Parent-Teacher Association and the Board of School Trustees as an advisory group in curriculum matters.

As its first job, the Commission undertook to supervise the writing of a statement of philosophy for the Evansville Public Schools. Every teacher in the system was given an opportunity to participate in formulating this statement. Building meetings were held in all of the 22 schools. The Citizens' Committee likewise contributed ideas as they met on the same subject. This combined effort was published under the title, *Learning Is Living*.

Other activities of the Curriculum Commission have included study programs built around the seven major objectives set up in the statement of philosophy, and a two-day preschool conference. Moving toward a typical in-service training program, consultants from Indiana University were brought in to work with the local groups.⁶

SEATTLE'S CURRICULUM DIVISION

The Seattle Public Schools maintain a Curriculum Division, whose primary function is to work through the corps of 2,300 teachers and principals in providing the best educational program possible for the 64,500 pupils. It is charged with the responsibility for the development and implementation of the total program of instruction. It is composed of these positions:

- 1 Assistant superintendent in charge of instruction and curriculum research
- 1 Executive director of the curriculum division

⁶ Information supplied by L. T. Buck, Public Schools, Evansville, Indiana.

- 11 Directors of departments—art, business, foreign languages, health and physical education, home economics, industrial arts, language arts, mathematics, music, science, and social studies
- 17 Consultants and assistants

The development of the individual pupil is the focus of the work of these instructional leaders. The Seattle school type of curriculum organization contributes to this by (a) providing for the child a sequence of learning experiences from the first through the last year of his schooling, by (b) insuring a close relationship between the experiences provided in the different areas of instruction, and by (c) securing for him the specialized training he may need.

It is to be noted that there are no supervisors as such. The instructional staff members are looked upon as co-workers and coplanners. These department heads, consultants, and assistants are capable teachers themselves, and are skilled in the ability to work with others on a friendly, co-operative basis. All have sound professional training for their positions. Their leadership qualities encourage teachers to ask freely their advice and counsel.

The staff members work constantly to challenge the teaching corps as to the purposes of their work, to assist in improving classroom practices, and to provide teachers with the best teaching materials available. This calls for numerous group meetings with principals and teachers to consider purposes, methods of teaching, and the development and introduction of new curriculum material. The orientation each year of a large number of inexperienced teachers calls for much individual help to teachers. The staff works directly in the schools, through group conferences, teacher committees, and through in-service courses which they often teach themselves.

A summary of the activities of the consultants and assistants for a typical school year shows this record of service: help to individual teachers in 3,512 instances, and help to teachers in 557 group meetings or conferences. The departmental directors show 1,346 building visits for the year. Of the 2,300 teachers, 1,564 attended professional courses set up by the Department. It is admitted by the Curriculum Department that it is impossible for the staff to meet all the requests from teachers and principals.

To further public understanding of the educational program in the schools, the Curriculum Division issues a series of small bulletins which are sent home with pupil report cards. Some of these have treated spelling, handwriting, and citizenship. Plans ahead include:

1. Elementary principals' conferences to treat curriculum development and the improvement of classroom instruction.
2. A re-evaluation of the high school program of studies with particular reference to those subjects usually designated as "elective."
3. Meetings of principals and consultant staff to develop more effective techniques for working with the new and inexperienced teachers.
4. Joint study of the junior high curriculum problems by principals and the curriculum office staff.
5. The development of more professional classes for teachers in the individual buildings, as regional in-service centers, with emphasis upon demonstration situations.
6. Joint conferences with counsellors and other guidance personnel, to gain greater insight into the problems of pupil adjustment within the existing curricular program. Expansion of the junior high counsellors' work in curriculum.

It is interesting to note that Seattle has merged all instructional or supervisory leadership into one co-ordinated effort. Curriculum planning, in-service or professional development, and supervision are no longer spoken of as separate functions. As the instructional staff makes its contribution, the members try to keep abreast of the demands of the times, by studying educational research, observing procedures in other school systems, and participating in state and national educational conferences.⁷

BALTIMORE'S CO-OPERATIVE STUDY PROGRAM

Curriculum change in the Baltimore Public Schools has for some years leaned heavily upon the workshop study approach. The provision of workshops is illustrative of how the staff has modified what is taught by encouraging teachers to supplement their previous training through co-operative curriculum study. These concerns have

⁷ Seattle Public Schools, *Annual Report of the Curriculum Division*, 1952. W. V. Smith, assistant superintendent in charge of instruction and curriculum research, C. D. Babcock, executive director of the curriculum division.

included the community setting as well as the more obvious instructional situation. This group study has been concerned with such questions as (1) child growth and development, (2) community analysis, (3) the dynamics of group discussion and decision, and (4) techniques and instruments of evaluation.⁸ Illustrative of the workshops that have been provided are these:

Child Growth and Development

Your Economy and You

Ceramics

Baltimore Industries

Teaching Reading in the Secondary Schools

Educational Aspects of Conservation

Atomic Energy Institute

Special Areas in Aviation Education

Community Study

Child study. During one year as many as 460 teachers participated in the Child Study workshop groups. Leadership from the University of Maryland was secured for the program. The carry-over in this increased understanding of the dynamics of behavior was noted in the greater rapport between teachers and parents as well as in the teachers' work in the instructional program proper.

Many who were in these workshops made later contributions to city-wide committee work, and to their local school programs. In some cases a few teachers in a school aroused enough interest among colleagues in the study of children to organize faculty study groups. Specific interests included problems of discipline, parent interviews, reporting to parents, record keeping, and related topics. The critical examination of teaching procedures has stood out as a general result of the study program.

Community study. In one year over 750 teachers, supervisors, and principals participated in a community study program. They represented all educational levels and nearly every school. The purposes of this undertaking were (1) to promote understanding of children based on knowledge of their environment—mental and cultural backgrounds, (2) to promote curriculum revision based on community needs, and (3) to stimulate school-community activities based on co-operation of all affected agencies.

⁸ Baltimore Public Schools, *Baltimore's Schools*, 28:22-51, 1950.

LAKEWOOD'S RELEASED TIME

Lakewood, Ohio, likewise strives to give teachers an important part in making decisions regarding the curriculum. How to free teachers for study group work has been a challenge to central office leadership.⁹

With the realization that head-office curriculum making will not effectively modify classroom practice, a procedure was sought that would develop in many individual classroom teachers and principals a feeling that curriculum improvement is necessary, desirable, and practical. Curriculum projects employing the efforts of teachers on released time were developed in the Lakewood Schools some time ago.

Committees had been at work for over a year, laying the groundwork for *Guides to Teachers* in physical education, health, and safety for all elementary grades. A considerable amount of this preliminary work, so necessary in the writing of curriculums, had included the examination of courses of study, gaining familiarity with the newer professional materials, evaluating textbooks, and discussing problems related to the selection of content in the three areas.

The three committees—on physical education, health, and safety—each comprised of an equal number of teachers representing kindergarten through the sixth grade, were selected from the ten elementary schools. The chairman of each committee was a member of the administrative staff. A co-ordinator and a consultant, also administrative staff members, worked with the groups.

At the time of the program's inception, the three chairmen met with their groups to discuss over-all problems, and to formulate the best method of getting the projects under way. All of this activity was time-consuming and no one session seemed long enough to complete the agenda previously determined. The last and most important item of business at every meeting was to find a time when all members could meet for their next session. It was during these early days of committee deliberation that someone suggested the value of three or four consecutive meetings, each of sufficient duration to complete a scheduled assignment. The only apparent solution was released time.

⁹ Description supplied by Superintendent M. W. Essex of Lakewood.

Following considerable discussion in administrative staff sessions, released time was approved and the plan for such time put into operation. Substitutes, carefully selected by principals, were briefed in a general meeting on the purpose of the program and the part they would play in it. The most valuable service they could render would be to carry along with the least possible interruption the regular work of the classes to which they were assigned. The plan provided that the same substitute be assigned to the class each time the regular teacher was absent. Thus, classes would become accustomed to arriving in the morning and finding the substitute teacher in charge, with the work of the morning being carried on according to the plans of the previous day.

With 20 per cent of the total staff engaged in this project, it was now obvious that committee work had to be staggered. The plan as set up provided for two consecutive weeks of work for each committee. The physical education committee came in for the first two weeks, followed by the health committee for another two weeks, and the safety committee for the next two weeks. Following this six-week period the committees returned, in the same order, each for an additional week, which made a total of three weeks for each committee, or approximately 180 hours of released time work for all committees.

In order that class work might be less interrupted through the absence of its regular teacher, only the morning sessions from eight to twelve were used. The committees worked in a suite of rooms that provided a quiet reading and writing atmosphere, while all discussion and planning took place in an adjacent room. A midmorning cup of coffee provided not only relaxation, but also through friendly associations a working atmosphere was constantly present.

As the third week for each group rolled around the materials produced were still incomplete; there remained the problem of bibliographies to be checked, audio-visual aids to be evaluated and assigned, and the enrichment of each unit by art and music still to be finished. However, these were details that could be done best by individuals and small groups. Those selected willingly assumed the responsibility and all materials were turned over to the committee chairmen by midyear.

The chairmen continued to meet with individuals or groups in order to draft units into the best possible form and completeness of

assignments. The editing was begun almost immediately and continued through the summer. A definite attempt was made by the editor to keep as much of the spirit as well as the letter of the original writer within the units as they were compiled. Frequent conferences were necessary at this stage between chairmen, committee members, and the editor. This creative relationship insured the retention of good ideas and eliminated any possible misinterpretation of committee action in the completed Guides.

Superintendent Essex has indicated that all committees were unwilling at any time to intimate that they had finished the work. In submitting their contributions, they in turn solicited the aid and suggestions of all their colleagues, who while using the Guides would be best suited to evaluate them and to make their contribution in the revisions which should follow after their first year of use.

STATE CURRICULUM PLANNING

No longer does a state department of education put out its course of study as a directive. The thesis of the present state effort in curriculum study is well expressed in this statement from a Tennessee publication: "It is not the purpose of this bulletin to tell the teacher what to teach or how to teach, but to present some guiding principles to be used in determining procedures and in selecting materials."¹⁰

To assure guides that are practical, state bulletins are now prepared with a maximum of participation from the field. The state office acts as a co-ordinating agency in harnessing the ideas from the schools. A 459-page state curriculum bulletin recently issued in Alabama carried the statement, "This publication would have been impossible without the assistance of hundreds of teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents who served on numerous committees during the period of the preparation of the manuscript."¹¹ Such effort is supervisory in nature, representing the professional development of the participants just as much as it represents the development of a teaching guide for others. It represents supervisory leadership from the state level, and in turn the finished materials act as a stimulant to supervisory leadership on the local level.

¹⁰ Tennessee State Department of Education, *Curriculum Planning for Our Schools* (Nashville: the Department, 1950), p. 1.

¹¹ Alabama State Department of Education, *Course of Study and Guide for Teachers* (Montgomery: the Department, 1950), p. vii.

In the case of the Alabama course of study, the new publication called for a special state conference of supervisors and directors of instruction, to study the bulletin and to plan its local applications.¹² Thus the work of a state curriculum office is picked up by county and local supervisory leaders, as the baton is passed along in the course of a relay.

Supervisory bulletins. A number of state departments of education publish instructional or supervisory bulletins of one sort or another for distribution to supervisors of county or local school systems.

The New York State Education Department issues a series entitled *Letter to Supervisors*. Each is devoted to a particular topic, some of which have been:

The Good Teacher—plays up the characteristics of a good classroom teacher.

A Universal Language—presents standards for an elementary school music program.

Now Is the Time—challenges the supervisor to afford leadership to teachers at the very beginning of the school year.

Do To Learn—reviews the place of activities in classroom instruction.

How Much, How Soon?—treats the supervision of spelling.

To Have and To Hold—centers attention upon the drop-out problem.

The State Department of Vermont, through its Division of Instruction, issues the *Curriculum Bulletin*, the series of which deal with the improvement of instruction on the local level. Among the titles are: Social Studies, grades 1-12; Business Education, grades 9-12; Character Education, grades 1-12; Health and Physical Education, grades 1-12; and Opportunities for Conservation, grades 1-12. In Chapter 11 are treated the curriculum programs of other states, such as Nebraska and Mississippi.

Almost astounding is the volume of educational literature issued at the state level in behalf of the improvement of instruction at the local level. For instance, in a two-year period Kansas published these instructional guides:

¹² Alabama State Department of Education, *Report of Conference of Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction* (Montgomery: the Department, 1950).

Better Schools for Kansas Children

Guides for Oral and Written Expression in Kansas Elementary Schools

Guides for Oral and Written Expression in Kansas Secondary Schools

Studies in Social Living

Kansas Secondary School Handbook

Approaches to Alcohol Education

Wisconsin is a state that has taken a lead in recent years in curriculum planning at the state level. Outstanding are its two *Guides to Curriculum Building*, one at the kindergarten level and the other at the junior high school level. Among the many others that have fine bulletins to their credit are Illinois, Michigan, and California. The latter's *A Framework for Public Education in California* has received wide attention.

So often the limitations of staff deny a state office the opportunity to offer the local district direct personal help. Consequently, curriculum guides often show up as the avenue of stimulation and advice in instructional matters. Kansas is such a state. The records show that financial aid to education provided and distributed at the state level is almost unknown there, only her neighbor Nebraska showing a lesser percentage of the total school revenue coming from the state.¹⁸

United States Office of Education statistics released in 1950 showed only 5.5 per cent of Nebraska's school funds as state provided, and only 11.4 per cent of those in Kansas. In contrast, Alabama secures 73 per cent from the state source, and Florida 53 per cent. As to county supervisors provided, the four states stand: Nebraska 5, Kansas 9, Alabama 112, and Florida 165. (See Table 6, Chapter 12.)

However, the absence of supervisory personnel has not held Kansas back in stimulating instruction. She has taken to the printed word and within the past few years has issued a great number of teaching guides in such fields as the language arts, social studies, and science. A recent communication from the director of instruction of the state department gives this summary of such leadership:

Each fall we conduct a series of forty to forty-five curriculum conferences distributed geographically over the state so that all teachers in

¹⁸Harold Spears, "Variation in the Support of Public Schools," *Principles of Teaching* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951), pp. 79-81.

the state have an opportunity to attend. These conferences in the past have been aimed at some specific subject area, usually in connection with the most recent textbook adoption in the state. For instance, this fall our special emphasis was on social studies and English. Last fall it was on reading. The year before the conferences were of a more general nature, having as their basis a bulletin which our department had issued entitled "Better Schools for Kansas Children." We feel that these conferences are of a great deal of value to the teachers in the state, and we frequently employ outside consultants to help us.

We are just going into the initial phases of a program which we hope to expand considerably in the next few years—the promotion of in-service training programs in local school systems. With the staff limitations which we now have, we are able to do very little more than offer stimulation and advice to local school systems. We do not pose as the experts who solve their problems but simply as promoters and advisors on the processes involved. When the local system grapples with a problem which requires the services of an expert, we try to refer them to some qualified person in one of the state institutions of higher learning.

We also do a bit of work in the county institutes which are held annually in every county of the state. Our county superintendents have direct supervision over all the schools in their county, outside of first and second class cities. The State Department of Education offers to every county superintendent some help in the conducting of their institutes and this provides considerable opportunity for the staff members of the Department to present materials and engage in many kinds of educational activities.¹⁴

The printed word has long since been accepted as the silent partner of the supervisory personnel of a state office. It is the partner that can reach the remotest classroom in spite of weather conditions and the limitation of personnel and time.

PRINCIPLES OF EVALUATION

Curriculum planning is not limited to ground to be covered, goals to be reached, methods to be used, materials to be provided, and attitudes to be maintained in all of this. Curriculum planning includes the judgment of progress. It is not uncommon for faculty study groups to give attention to this matter. For instance, the Oak Ridge, Tennessee, schools advanced these principles for the evaluation of the instructional effort:

1. Evaluation is a constant process of the consideration of the degree to which the results and by-products of the education program reach the stated and implied objectives of the program.

¹⁴ J. H. Nicholson, Director of Instruction, Kansas State Department of Public Instruction, personal letter to the author, February 9, 1952.

2. Evaluation is concerned with more than end products; it must be seen as a continuing process. Therefore, it is concerned with both means and ends.

3. All who are concerned in any experience will inevitably make judgments upon it; therefore, it is part of the responsibility of the schools to provide such information and such leadership that the community's evaluations shall be intelligent. This means that evaluation should be cooperative. It includes administrators, teachers, pupils, and parents, and many others who are concerned with the schools.

4. Evaluation should start out as a means of discovering group and individual growth rather than of determining merely whether children possess or do not possess certain abilities.

5. It should determine how well the school provides conditions of growth and the experiences which make learning economical and effective.

6. Children learn more effectively when they take part in evaluation. The objective should be self-direction and self-evaluation.

7. Evaluation is concerned with all aspects of the curriculum—administration, buildings, grounds, equipment, finances, community relationships, and so forth.

8. A long-range evaluation program should be so planned that no one year would involve the school in a complete study of every aspect of its work. Time should be so budgeted that specific items of the program will be evaluated.

9. Research studies should be carried on in the schools when they contribute to the best interests of pupils and the schools, to the professional improvement of the teachers, and to the development of a better program in the schools.

10. The collection of data and the keeping of records in the schools have no value in themselves. Only as records aid in evaluating the true functions, the true objectives, of the schools do they attain value.

11. Any evaluation program should be subject to revision. It must be responsive to changes in the curriculum and to conditions outside the school which affect children. It should be flexible so that it can be modified in accordance with advances in the techniques of evaluation.¹⁵

IN RETROSPECT

A short chapter treating curriculum development does not do justice to the subject. At the graduate level curriculum planning is considered worthy of courses in its own right, even though the service can be considered an offshoot of supervision—of instructional leadership. It is here to stay as a function of school administra-

¹⁵ R. H. Ostrander, "Evaluation in the Oak Ridge Schools," *Educational Leadership*, 8:3 (November, 1950), pp. 87-88.

tion and supervision. It is a service that will parallel instruction, beginning with the purposes of the program and going on through the materials and the processes to the evaluation of effort.

Now that supervision and curriculum development seem to have found their true relationship, a new concept of instructional leadership has entered the field. It is in-service training. It not only demands a clear distinction of its service, but suggests a clarification of its relationship to these other two.

For Further Consideration

In a school system that maintains a curriculum staff distinct from the supervisory staff, what are the means of correlating the two leadership efforts? To what extent is continuous instructional improvement dependent upon the development of teaching guides? What are the common barriers to local curriculum revision? To what degree is continuous instructional improvement dependent upon supervisory aid to individual teachers and to what degree upon curriculum study programs? What are the instructional problems commonly faced by teachers that may act as the basis for curriculum study?

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The Idea Behind In-Service Training

IN-SERVICE training as an idea is the late bloomer in school administration's garden of instructional improvement. As the latest discovery it is naturally receiving the major share of attention in the cultivation of school improvement programs. The newness has not worn off; there is so much yet to be known about its possibilities, and the varieties seem almost unlimited. What is called in-service training in one community may seem almost entirely different from that bearing the name in another.

The term is not exactly the equivalent of professional growth. In-service training has as its goal the professional growth of the teacher; but as a concept it includes the plan, the program, or the effort of the local school system to accomplish that end. Often in the journals, this program goes by the title of *in-service education*. In the treatment here, the term *in-service training* is used because it seems to be more popular in actual school practice.

THE RELATIONSHIPS OF THREE MOVEMENTS

Without a doubt, in-service training is a close relative of curriculum planning and of supervision. All three were born in the instructional department, mothered by a dissatisfaction with an average school, and fathered by the restlessness that has always brought forth better instruction. All three have the same goal, but in-service training differs in certain respects, the most easily discernible being the time difference.

Supervision is the eldest. As a subject worthy of general discussion and study it was well established in the educational journals 35 years ago. It was likewise recognized as a worthy service in the local

and state school budgets. Curriculum planning did not crash the title list in *Education Index* to any noticeable degree until after supervision was well accepted as a necessary school service. Appropriations for curriculum positions likewise came some years after those for supervisors. Only within the past ten or fifteen years has in-service training gained its prominence. All three programs or services bid for the same favored position, for the chance to act as administration's instructional leader.

To what extent in-service is a new idea, and to what extent it is merely a new term for an old program, has not yet been fully determined. Movements or trends in schooling, just as those in the history of a nation, defy complete interpretation until time permits them to be studied in retrospect. But there are distinct characteristics that already indicate differences among these three practices. Perhaps it is most helpful to separate curriculum planning first.

Differences between curriculum planning and supervision. Curriculum planning—often called curriculum reorganization or curriculum development—at heart is a concern for the instructional offering itself. As a movement to keep schools up to date, it was originally centered in the program of studies. The great emphasis upon the scope and sequence of the curriculum was one of broadening the program and articulating the parts. Activity was directed upon courses of study, materials of instruction, teachers' guides, and similar matters pertaining to the subjects taught. Although emphasis was to wander later, this original orientation of curriculum planning gave it its true identity.

It is true that what is offered in the classroom is bound to be conditioned by the teacher, the child, and the methods of instruction. Until curriculum programs came into the school budget, the concern for the teacher and the techniques of teaching had been the province of supervision. This distinction continued for some time, with the two programs running side by side in rather well-separated lanes. Supervision looked after or judged teachers and their techniques; curriculum development limited its efforts to improving the school's offerings. Supervision worked in the classrooms; curriculum development worked at the central office.

Each function called upon technicians trained for its distinctive type of work. The supervisors were looked upon as expert teachers competent to judge classrooms. Curriculum workers were looked

upon as experts in school offerings competent to write courses of study and to prescribe changes in the school program. Once the new offering was installed, the supervisor would take over as the one to judge the teacher's success with it. This was the only point of contact of the two services in the early days of the curriculum movement.

Up to this point, the teacher was not looked upon as a contributor in either program. The teacher was on the receiving end in both instances, the commodity being advice from the supervisor and new courses of study from the curriculum expert. Change came with the democratic movement in school administration. Supervision turned off its penetrating classroom spotlight and sought to entice the teacher to step out of the classroom into co-operative group endeavors. At the same time the curriculum expert invited the teacher to participate in co-operative curriculum development. In seeking group activities worthy of teacher time, supervision tiptoed over into the curriculum field, and the original fence that separated the two was no longer effective.

Cross pollenization set in, and school administration lost the precise demarcations that it had always maintained in its garden of instructional improvement. Supervisors no longer limited their effort to the classroom, but engaged in all the miscellaneous activities that might condition instruction and learning. They also helped teachers to change their offerings and to build teaching guides. Curriculum study in turn broadened its scope of attention to include such essentials as teachers' attitudes and children's natures. Curriculum planners became concerned also about teaching techniques. Then in-service training entered the field.

In-service training seeks its place. In-service training is a concept that has swept the country in a period of a few years. The idea has the advantage of a title that is graciously accepted. In theory it is the idea that everybody on the staff—whether teacher, administrator, or instructional specialist—needs to grow on the job. It implies continuous growth, and this is highly flattering to a person in the classroom. It is much more flattering than the idea of supervision, which implied that the teacher needed to be checked from time to time, human nature being what it is.

Another feature of this new program is that teachers help themselves to grow in service. Thus in-service training capitalized upon

the experience of both the previous movements. Both supervision and curriculum planning began as hand-out programs and had to learn by bitter experience that teachers, just as pupils, progress best by doing rather than by being done unto. Thus in this case the in-service movement takes over the same democratic approach that in late years has been used in both supervision and curriculum planning. Perhaps in a sense in this respect it is an extension of those services under a new title. If supervision was in a slump a few years back, it can be said that it has been lifted out of its slump by the advent of curriculum planning and in-service training.

A PACKAGE DEAL

One of the most distinctive features of in-service training is its common association with the financial advancement of the teacher. It has worked its way into his bank account. So convinced are boards of education that teachers can and should grow professionally while in service that they often set stringent professional growth requirements for advancement on the salary schedule. At first established as a simple system of additional college credits, the accounting of this growth is now often handled in increment credits given for miscellaneous in-service activities deemed the equivalent worth of college courses.

It is to be recalled that some school systems have always operated without a salary schedule, the board of education choosing to discriminate among teachers in an attempt to pay each in accordance with his particular contribution. Some school systems with schedules chose to provide a merit rating for a select group of teachers, paying them accordingly.

However, up to the time of the entry of the in-service credit system, the teacher's financial welfare, in most school systems, had been kept distinct from the instructional leadership given him. For instance, in the program of supervision the teacher was never given financial credit for his participation in the supervisor's visit to his classroom. The professional good that he received was taken for granted with no accounting of it needed for advancement on the salary schedule. Nor was he given increment credit for using the new course of study prepared by the curriculum department. The professional benefits were taken for granted.

But in today's in-service training program it is common for the teacher to present participation in this or that study group or activity

as his admission ticket to the next higher step on the salary schedule. This forced wedding of bank assets and professional growth assets is unique in the history of school administration's attempt to provide instructional help to the teacher.

For years in American schools the common type of salary schedule was one respecting just two main points, training and experience. As to training, a typical schedule would provide about three lanes, or classification groups—one for teachers with fewer than four years of training, one for those with four, and one for those with a Master's degree. Experience was recognized by providing in each lane an average of twelve or fifteen annual increments, representing the years taught. These were automatic increments, movement upward from one to the next being dependent upon another year of teaching service. Credit for additional college work was used only for movement from one lane or classification across to another.

But times have changed, and commonly creeping into salary schedules is the third feature—the requirement of in-service growth credit in order to move up the increment scale in the same classification. Increment advancement is no longer automatic but is dependent upon the accumulation of a specified number of in-service credits.

No longer does such in-service work have to be done on campus. It can be secured under the direction of local professional leadership. It may be accomplished out in the community. Provisions are set up for the establishment of proof of such accomplishment. In other words, this becomes the school system's main program of instructional leadership. It is a program in which all teachers are required to participate.

Increment credit for in-service effort. A research study on the subject recently issued by the National Education Association reviews the professional growth equivalents for college credits allowed by 56 school systems in cities over 30,000 in population. Among the means by which a teacher may qualify for the next annual increment on the salary scale are: Travel, research projects, convention attendance, lecture course attendance, summer school teaching, publishing articles or books, exchange teaching, local study group work, institutes, supervision of practice teachers, experimentation, organization leadership, sabbatical-leave projects, community leadership, professional organization service, demonstration teaching, work in teachers' associations, reading educational books and periodicals, delivering educational addresses, reviewing texts, membership in

educational associations, industries forums, defense service, work experience, creative work, curriculum activity, and service in the schools' extra-curricular program.¹

Intricate accounting of growth. Needless to say, in this attempt to give increment credit for evidences of the teacher's professional growth, for activities in lieu of college courses, the system of accounting may become somewhat complicated. In Table 8 is reported one of the plans reviewed in the research bulletin just cited.

The school system that demands in-service activity as an increment requirement faces the problem of crediting such endeavor. Larger systems may employ a salary co-ordinator. Others often set up committees of teachers and administrators to treat the questions that naturally arise in giving credit. Even the provision of credit for travel is not easily administered. It wanders off into the technicalities of what type of travel, the time spent, the distance covered, and the evidence to be presented. Once the school district adopts the policy of accepting other growth activities as substitutes for college credits, the accounting of in-service experiences becomes complicated.

Early efforts in New York City. For over 20 years in the New York City schools the receipt of a salary increment has been dependent upon the successful completion of a 30-hour course of "cultural or technical study." Elements of the present in-service programs are seen in these alternate means of meeting that requirement when it was established in 1929: (a) the successful completion of the written part of an examination for a higher license, (b) the successful completion within a salary year of an approved or requested research project, (c) the publication of a book of professional or cultural value, (d) the holding of a Master's degree, (e) the successful completion of a home study extension course, (f) and the giving of a 30-hour course in a college. The holding of a Doctor's degree was credited as an equivalent course of study for the entire span of a salary schedule.²

¹ American Association of School Administrators and Research Division of the National Education Association, *Educational Research Service*, Circular No. 1, 1950, pp. 10-15.

² New York City Board of Education, Association of Assistant Superintendents, *Study Guide on Policies and Practices Affecting Elementary Schools* (New York: the Board, 1952), pp. 94-95.

TABLE 2
THE OMAHA IN-SERVICE POINT SYSTEM³

Types of Equivalents Allowed	Points Allowed	Maximum Points Allowed per 6-Year Period	
		Without Master's	With Master's
Auditing college courses.....	1 for each semester hour	4	4
Research.....	1 for each 15 hours	8	16
Publication.....	1 for each 15 hours	8	16
Conferences and institutes:		8	12
Professional speakers.....	1 for 15 speeches		
Lecture attendance.....	1 for 20 lectures		
Institute attendance.....	2 for 1 semester hour		
Activities in cultural organizations.....	1 for 20 hours		
Committee work.....	1 for 15 hours	8	12
Travel:		8	12
Business or vocational.....	1 per month		
Recreational.....	1 for 1 week, 2 for 2 weeks, 3 for 1 month, 4 for 2 months		
Educational.....	2 for 1 week, 4 for 2 weeks, 6 for 1 month, 8 for 2 months		
Community service.....	1 for 15 hours outside of school	8	12
Exchange teaching.....	6 for 1 semester	8	12
University teaching.....	4 for 1 hour	8	12
Summer employment:		8	8
Activities similar to teaching....	1 for 200 hours		
Activities remote from teaching..	1 for 100 hours, 2 for 200 or more hours		
Other activities:		8	12
Five consecutive years of organization membership.....	1		
Education Association representative and alternate	1 per year		
Demonstration teaching.....	1 for 15 hours		
Special classes of schools.....	1 for 15 hours	8	8
Supervision of practice teaching....	1 for 15 hours	8	12

³Information checked and approved for publication by the Omaha Public Schools, Harry A. Burke, Superintendent.

Other examples. Chosen at random are four other examples that follow, representing the professional growth requirements as set out in the administrative handbooks of the respective school systems. The four are presented here by size of school system, as indication that such growth requirements are found in systems of various sizes.

A City of 38,000. Yakima, Washington, requires that each teacher earn at least six quarter hour credits every third year or twelve quarter hour credits every fifth year to continue to receive increments on the salary schedule. Approved travel or writing is evaluated and awarded professional credit also.

A City of 57,000. The administration of the Port Arthur, Texas, schools feels that "the most outstanding feature" of their in-service growth is the school board policy requiring teachers to obtain six semester hours additional credit, or its accepted equivalent, once during each three-year period. A teacher is allowed 10 per cent of his annual salary as an expense allotment once during each three-year cycle to attend summer school.

*A City of 68,000.*⁴ "A minimum professional growth standard of five semester hours of credit from an accredited college or university shall be considered the accepted policy for certificated personnel during each five-year period.

- "1. Attendance at local courses sponsored by the Board of Education may be substituted for college or university credit. All of the professional growth standard may be met in this way in one five-year period.
- "2. A combination of college or university courses and local courses may be submitted to meet the standard.

"The school system leaves general policies and decisions pertaining to individual cases to a Professional Growth Committee made up of representatives of the central office staff and the teachers."

*A City of 110,000.*⁵ "Nondegree tenure teachers must advance to the next classification within a period of five years. A teacher who fails to fulfill this requirement will step back one level on the salary schedule each year for three years or until this requirement is met, but in no case more than three levels.

⁴ Lakewood, Ohio, *Handbook of Professional Personnel Policies*, 1951, pp. 3-4.

⁵ Evansville, Indiana, *Public Schools Handbook*, 1951-52, pp. 18-19.

"Each tenure teacher shall earn a minimum of six semester hours of credit during each five-year period of his employment. . . . Failure to comply with this requirement will cause the teacher to remain stationary on the salary schedule until this requirement is fulfilled. A teacher on the maximum salary who fails to fulfill the requirement will step back one level of the salary schedule and remain there until he complies with this regulation.

"A teacher with a degree may substitute educational travel, convention attendance, research, or other educational activities for semester hours of credit, provided such activities are approved by the superintendent. Evaluation of such will be done by a committee composed of two persons appointed by the superintendent of schools and two appointed by the president of the Teachers Association."

Issues involved. These examples are sufficient to represent the growing practice of packaging the teacher's salary and his professional growth together. Students of education have hardly had time to evaluate the instructional effectiveness of this method of priming the professional growth pump. The plan has swept the country within a very short period of time. The optimist may say that it assures teachers' continuous professional development; the pessimist might argue that it forces teachers' professional activity rather than encouraging it in a wholesome manner.

Apparently the practice has captured the fancy of school boards from coast to coast. The Research Division of the National Education Association has attempted to learn the extent to which such equivalency credit systems are used. Of 198 systems in cities over 30,000 population, 79 reported that classroom teachers are required to submit evidence of continued professional growth at stated intervals in order to progress normally on the increment steps of their classifications. These requirements are often referred to as "barriers" or "hurdles" on the salary schedule.⁶

It is well to recall that the original supervisory movement, the first in the series of services to teachers, was discredited and actually rejected by teachers because the program included the inspection and close checking of teachers. Only time will tell if the inclusion of a system of forced in-service professional growth will become an albatross around the neck of instructional leadership.

For discussion purposes here, it is well to point out that the

⁶ American Association of School Administrators, etc., *op. cit.*, p. 2.

original concept of in-service training did not include this monetary arrangement. That innovation was no doubt a reflection of the environment in which salary policies were discussed and set by school officials. In the atmosphere of college graduate work, they are accustomed to thinking of credits in graduate courses as a practical—or at least a convenient—way of indicating professional growth. Likewise, consultants from the college campus employed by local Boards of Education have also recommended this union of in-service training and salary awards. Once salary schedules were so devised, to make increments dependent upon additional college work, it was natural for local administration to seek substitute growth activities that might save the teacher the cost and inconvenience of college work.

School administrators have so long been accustomed to accounting the student's growth in credits, units, and marks, that it was easy for them to fall into a similar accounting procedure for judging teachers' growth. Regardless of its origin, the increment-credit practice has already put down its roots in the school soil. In school systems from coast to coast mere mention of the term in-service brings to mind the association of required courses or substitute activities.

Supervisory groups, in their conferences, now use the term in-service freely as they include their own work with teachers. In a recent work conference of Louisiana supervisors, these five assumptions about in-service were proposed: (1) every teacher needs it, (2) it should be continuous, (3) it should begin where we are, (4) it should be co-operatively planned, and (5) it should be continuously evaluated in the light of sound educational principles.⁷ The title given the total effort of the supervisory staff in a school system today is more apt to be in-service program than it is to be supervisory program.

The original principles of in-service training, defining the original idea behind the movement, seem to have been well related, one growing naturally out of the other. They might be thus recorded:

1. The professional training of the teacher does not stop when he leaves the college for his first job.

⁷ Louisiana Work Conference for Supervision, *Setting Our Sights for Effective Supervision* (Baton Rouge: State Department of Education, 1951), pp. 3-4.

2. Nor can his future professional development be adequately served by continuous teaching experience alone.
3. The school system should provide opportunities for teachers to continue to grow on the job.
4. These activities when planned and co-ordinated can be called the in-service training program.
5. The provision of personnel in the school budget to help teachers in such a program as a legitimate expenditure.
6. The test of the in-service program lies in the improvement of the instruction and consequently in the improved development of the pupils.

The author prefers to rest the case with these six principles rather than to advance the proposal that the incentive for teacher participation in the program should be promised advancement on the salary scale. Nobody to date has made the increment incentive a real issue. Yet it belongs at the top of the list of issues in the field of instructional leadership, and for that reason has been raised here as a topic calling for close study.

We should predict that within ten or twenty years the intricate accounting systems will kill the spirit of systematic teacher growth on the job, unless the present tendency is curbed. The spirit of any supervisory or in-service program must be the participant's enthusiastic desire to improve the learning for the child. It cannot be credit chasing for the sake of financial remuneration.

An experienced school administrator, Watt A. Long, who has headed in-service training programs in two large West Coast cities, sees no particular danger in the merger of an in-service program and a system of salary increments—provided there are safeguards established in the basic organization of the program. He has reviewed his point of view in the following section that concludes this chapter. We then leave the idea and the machinery of in-service, and in Chapter 18 turn to the actual programs.

SUPERVISION AND TEACHER GROWTH⁸

The continuing exploration carried on by research specialists in educational psychology, social psychology, and social anthropology

⁸ This section was prepared by Watt A. Long, an experienced school administrator, who has been willing to bring to the reader his experience with in-service programs. His statement concludes the chapter.

produces new scientific information relative to the growth and development of man which has important implications for education. Educators, like any other professional group, need continuous contacts with the new discoveries of science in order to cope more adequately with changing conditions they meet every day.

It is unrealistic to expect the colleges and universities to train teachers so that they can practice in perpetuity without the benefits of continued study and research. One of the purposes of supervision is to improve the quality of instruction by promoting the professional growth of all teachers, administrators, and supervisors through co-operative study of the conditions surrounding learning and pupil growth.

An organized in-service program. The orderly way to promote continuing professional growth is through an organized program of in-service training. An in-service program that is co-operatively planned by administrators, supervisors, and teachers to meet a wide variety of educational needs saves the time and energy of all concerned and at the same time gives greater assurance of more functional outcomes. Suffice it to say that an in-service program developed co-operatively for a large or small city or county system is an essential of good curriculum development. It provides for better communication between the various working groups and also between the various teaching levels.

The first in-service programs were instituted by school administrators to acquaint teachers with specific techniques which they were expected to use in their classrooms in the teaching of arithmetic, reading, and writing. For additional subjects, such as art, physical education, and science, the same plan was followed as in arithmetic and reading; namely, what to teach, how to teach, and when to teach. Frequently, the institute or series of meetings was opened by an explanation, by an expert, of reasons for the changes in methods. As the pattern of teaching became more permissive because of increasing understanding and concern for the individual differences observed in children, the school curriculum became less rigid and the in-service work began to include consideration of a variety of teaching problems. The informal pattern of in-service continued to expand to the point where in many instances it lost any semblance of an organized effort to focus attention even on some general purposes for the curriculum.

Related curriculum development. A functional program of in-service provides appropriate ways and means for a variety of learning activities to accommodate a staff with varied interests and needs. And at the same time it becomes the chief vehicle for carrying the program of curriculum development. In recent years, curriculum development and in-service have been so closely allied that they are frequently thought of as one program. This alliance makes possible the recognition of individuals for active participation in curriculum development and at the same time assures professional growth. The teaching-learning situation involving the teacher and the pupils is improved when the participants in the curriculum and in-service programs operate as a team.

Salary implications. Recent developments in salary policy require teachers to present at regular intervals a designated number of college credits as evidence of professional growth. These plans are designated as professional salary schedules in that salary increases are tied to additional professional training directed by an accredited college or university. The professional salary schedules were invented to answer the problems involved in a merit system which attempted to select teachers whose work was outstanding and give them a salary increase. Such schedules tend to replace merit plans.

An in-service training program designed to conform to a professional salary schedule may at first appear to be very restrictive and to exclude the possibility of close teamwork with a program of curriculum development. Experience with in-service training programs tied to professional salary schedules has proven that a program of curriculum development can be satisfactorily teamed up with the in-service program. Such a teacher growth program offers several possibilities. We have found that colleges and universities have been altogether co-operative in organizing special curriculum seminars for late afternoons or evenings to accommodate a group wishing to pursue the study of special problems, or to develop teacher guides and courses of study.

The curriculum approach. It should be evident to any discerning professional leader that it is neither possible nor desirable to attempt to engage the whole staff in work on a single curriculum problem. Furthermore, recognition of the various levels of competence to be found in a staff necessitates a variety of approaches to the general problem of keeping the whole staff moving forward. To challenge

some members of a staff to participate actively in curriculum studies, it is desirable to challenge them through regular college or university courses indirectly related to the everyday problems from the teaching-learning situation. Frequently, a curriculum study group will want to pursue its study with the assistance of a consultant who is not a member of the sponsoring college or university. Such seminars can be organized in the same fashion and with the same hours and credits as those offered by a co-operating college or university.

The in-service program, as previously described, offers the harassed supervisor an answer to his present-day problem of providing help for teachers who would like to discuss their classroom problems with him. A series of meetings for a given grade or subject field, where teachers can discuss their problems freely with the supervisor, presents an unusual opportunity to assist the individuals in finding satisfactory solutions to such questions. A series of meetings at regular intervals gives time to explain fully the nature of the problem and also time to explore all the possible answers. This group supervision often is the first step in a curriculum study which leads to significant improvements in the teaching-learning situation.

Furthermore, in-service activities which involve teachers and supervisors in co-operative study encourage experimentation in the classroom designed to make the teaching more effective. The classroom visits of the supervisor to the teachers who are participating in a co-operative study are of greater value to the teaching-learning situation than the incidental visits, even though inspection has a place in the supervisory pattern for any school or school system. Supervision, like any developmental process involving co-operative action, needs to have the critical scrutiny of all concerned, and especially that of the person or persons with leadership responsibilities.

For Further Consideration

What part should teachers play in planning in-service training programs? How can school systems avoid the danger of in-service training being dominated by the incentive to receive credits for advancement on the salary scale? To what degree should the supervisory staff in a city carry the responsibility for in-service training? To what degree should the supervisory staff in a county carry this responsibility? In time, will supervision, curriculum planning, and in-service merge into one program of instructional leadership?

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The In-Service Program

NOW that in-service training has been added to supervision and to curriculum planning as a third movement toward the improvement of instruction and learning, relative positions might well be summarized.

The original interest of supervision was in the improvement of the teacher's classroom procedures, of curriculum planning was in improvement of the educational offering itself, and of in-service training was the general professional growth of the teacher. By its very title it implied teacher growth while in service.

But educational concepts refuse to stay nailed down. They shift with the times, as noted in the previous chapter in the case of supervision and curriculum planning. In trying to reach its goal, the in-service program will wander down every avenue that is open. It will sit in the curriculum committee room; it will go in and out of the classroom; it will travel to far-off places; it will get out into the community; it will study the child and the various other aspects of pedagogy. But in spite of all its ramifications, it will find its true distinction in its original goal—the general professional growth of the teacher. If classrooms are supervised in the process, if curriculum materials are developed, it will be as a means to this other objective.

Nobody on the job is going to quibble about the differences among these three movements. They are all most worthy, and the detailed study made here finds its justification in a graduate classroom rather than in a faculty meeting.

THE EDUCATIONAL WORKSHOP

These professional goals are going to be reached in varied ways. Of pronounced significance to in-service education today is the

workshop. It is so frequently and so effectively used that school leadership would indeed be hard pressed to do without it. It is a technique for holding group conferences or study programs. It has established itself as an effective way of enabling a group to come together to work on matters of mutual concern. The workshop study pattern is applicable to all sizes of school groups. It is likewise applicable to various types of in-service situations. A few of the more prevalent are reviewed below.

1. *The faculty workshop.* This technique is commonly used by school principals to replace the more formal faculty meetings which at one time constituted the major program of professional growth. The description that follows is taken from the account of a typical workshop program.¹

All interested school personnel, about 80 per cent of the faculty, met weekly on Monday afternoon for an hour and a half, followed occasionally by a dinner. Usually the professional discussions and activities were preceded by a cup of tea or coffee and a friendly period of social relaxation. The program was planned by a steering committee using the results of periodic polls of group interests.

Discussion meetings were held twice each month and were devoted to such topics as professional ethics, mental health in the classroom, behavior problems, creative expression, the testing program, and curriculum development. The participants shared experiences and contributions were made by outside resource people. Two other meetings each month were devoted to the more manual types of activity. Some worked in the manual arts shop under the direction of one of the teachers, some in arts and crafts, some in a science laboratory, and some in a music group. Values in this workshop, as reviewed by a committee, include:

1. This interaction of a large majority of the faculty was most wholesome.
2. A valuable type of supervision resulted from this close cooperation of teachers, principal, and superintendent in formulating the plans of the school.
3. The morale of the entire group was raised by the close social and professional interaction. Closer relationships resulted from broader knowledge of one's neighbor.
4. The workshop broadened the participants' knowledge of the total curriculum and the problems at the various levels. It led to closer articulation of teaching levels.
5. The workshop revealed many advantages over the more formal

¹ Walter A. Anderson, "The New Teacher Must Not Be Overlooked," *Educational Method*, 22:2 (November, 1942), pp. 82-85.

faculty meetings. Teachers came with an open mind, as participants rather than as merely listeners.

2. *The institute workshop.* The most traditional and most prevalent gathering of teachers for purposes of professional uplift has been the institute program. Supported by state requirement as well as by traditional faith, the institute has stood its ground remarkably well in spite of constant attack upon its effectiveness.

Perhaps its new lease on life has been the result of willingness to change its organizational pattern. It, too, has felt the influence of the workshop approach. First, the traditional institute address was supplemented with small group discussions. In a number of instances, the institute is organized almost completely as a workshop. This means democratic planning, organization into groups small enough to permit effective participation, resource help, democratic evaluation, and departure with materials or plans for local application.

One of the many public school systems reporting the use of the workshop approach in local study programs is the York, Pennsylvania, school system. One institute day was broken down into these study groups:

Developing better habits of listening and speaking.

Group dynamics and sociometric grouping in a classroom.

The slow-learning child.

Individualizing instruction.

Teaching of the social studies.

Unit teaching and teacher-pupil planning in a classroom.

Audio-visual aids.

Guidance.

Television.

Improvement of reading from grades one to twelve.

Vocational education.

Another of the workshop programs provided there was scheduled one afternoon a month for eight sessions. The consultants for the groups included faculty members of a state college and members of the administrative and supervisory staffs. The program was organized into these groups: all the pupils, unit of work teaching, the good student-teaching program, the science program in the school system, human relations, vocational education, audio-visual educa-

tion, the arts in the curriculum, school organization and supervision, and living and learning in the classroom.

3. *The graduate workshop.* It is now common for graduate schools of education to set up special summer workshops for teachers. These usually are planned around a special interest, such as curriculum, guidance, or primary education, and take the place of the more formal courses in such subjects.

4. *The conference workshop.* The educational conference, often the annual meeting of a specialized group of teachers or administrators, has likewise been influenced by these more informal procedures. Although not so often called workshops, these meetings are subject to the same principles. Wherever used, the workshop plan has as its basic feature the opportunity for teachers and other staff members to define the problems to which they devote their attention in the study program.

5. *The summer workshop.* Some school systems set up summer study programs for their teachers and administrators on the workshop plan. These usually range in length from one to four weeks. They usually treat varied interests of the participants and follow the patterns of planning and procedures discussed above. They are usually optional, but in some cases represent an in-service requirement in the program of professional development.

There is a tendency among school systems to extend the working year of the school staff. This reflects in part the improvement in salaries and the consequent thought that a worthy annual salary justifies a maximum contribution. Related is the idea that the school staff needs time for co-operative planning, and that the natural time for this is the summer months when children are out. The summer workshop has been the answer. The practice is now so common, it is relatively easy for the school organizing its first workshop to secure bulletins treating programs that have been held.²

In Greenville, South Carolina, the teacher's contract stipulates that the 180 teaching days be supplemented with two weeks of participation in the in-service training program set up by the school department. It is under the direction of a steering committee composed

² Austin, Texas, *In-Service Program for Teacher Personnel*, 1952. Alabama State Department of Education, *In-Service Education, a Handbook for the Development of Programs* (Montgomery: the Department).

of representatives of the elementary schools, junior high school, senior high school, and the central office staff. Recently the assignment was scattered through three periods, a six-day preschool conference, a two-day conference at the beginning of the Christmas holidays, and another two-day conference at the beginning of the spring holidays.

The planning group works closely with the teachers in determining these three programs. For instance in one spring conference the suggestions for the study groups emanated from the staff as a whole, and were then sent back for final selection and elimination. The groups as finally determined were: choral reading, remedial reading, developmental reading, books children like to read, science from grade one through twelve, handicrafts, audio-visual aids, rhythms and folk games, exceptional children, emotionally disturbed children, counseling adolescents, the bearing of current problems on education, and spiritual guidance.

San Francisco, California, is one of the many cities which for some years have required the administrators and supervisory staff to participate in a summer workshop. Greenwich, Connecticut, is among the smaller cities following this practice. It is now common for the work year of the administrative and supervisory staff to be longer by some weeks than the teachers'. The San Francisco workshop is held for two weeks in August, and for the most part is limited to morning work. A popular pattern there has been (1) 9 A.M. to 10 A.M., joint meeting of both elementary and secondary people to hear a speaker of common interest, (2) 10 A.M.-10:30 A.M., coffee hour and informal conferences, and (3) 10:30 A.M.-12 noon, small group meetings. Groups are organized around both administrative and instructional problems. Interests reflect the concern in the day-by-day operation of the schools.

6. *The Preschool Workshop.* Growing in popularity for some time has been the preschool conference for orientation into the new school year. It ordinarily comes the week prior to the opening of school and includes all teachers, administrators, and other staff members. In a short survey of in-service training over the country, the writer found the practice reported from coast to coast, a few of the school systems being Cullman, Alabama; Biloxi, Mississippi; Dubuque, Iowa; Evansville, Indiana; Port Arthur, Texas; Greenville, South Carolina; and Omaha, Nebraska.

School systems are now accepting these days as a part of the teacher's working year, as essential preparation worthy of teaching credit. Common features of the work of the conference are:

1. Orientation of new teachers to the school system.
2. Presentation of new policies and the consideration of problems of organization and planning for the year.
3. Presentation of new instructional materials and equipment.
4. Interpretation of special parts of the school program.
5. General meetings of all participants, often addressed by the superintendent.
6. Building staff meetings in the respective schools.
7. Social activities to foster good fellowship and professional morale.

The Austin, Texas, Board of Education, has extended the calendar of the certificated personnel in order to provide for their continuous professional growth. The school year for teachers was extended from the customary 180 days to 200, and that of supervisors and principals from 10 to 11 months. The 20 days are being used as follows:

4 days just prior to school opening for preplanning for established teachers and orientation for new ones.

3 days for curriculum planning, during which the entire faculty of a school works on common problems.

13 days in June after the close of school for workshops.

In Binghamton, Massachusetts, voluntary co-operation is the keynote of the in-service program. Over a three year period 400 teachers have availed themselves of the classes offered. The courses are determined democratically by a committee of 15 teachers, administrators, and supervisors working from the suggestions of the staff as a whole.

The Arlington, Virginia, program is centered in six workshops spaced throughout the year. There are three in August; one voluntary, one required for new teachers, and a third for all teachers. The others are scheduled for November, January, and April. Additional funds have been budgeted for releasing teachers to work on curriculum committees, to visit other schools, and to attend professional meetings.

7. *The school and community workshop.* One of the most inter-

esting activities in the growth of teachers is that which is intended to bring them into conference with parents and laymen. One such activity is the school and community workshop, such as those arranged by the University City, Missouri, Public Schools.

One such workshop consisted of twelve night or after-school weekly meetings planned around the theme, the Growth and Development of the Adolescent. Each meeting consisted of the presentation of a phase of the subject by a speaker, followed by discussion from the floor. A similar pattern was followed for a workshop planned around the theme, Understanding the Young Child. These conferences bring parents and teachers into joint planning and participation. Attendance there has varied from 200 to 900 registrants per workshop.

A second venture to bring school and community together in study situation is what has come to be known as Business-Education Day, and its reverse, Education-Business Day. The former is an organized field day for teachers, which takes them into industries and business houses for observation, luncheon, and discussion. The latter is an organized day for business executives to come into the schools for observation, luncheon, and discussion. As has been discovered by San Francisco, Dubuque, and other communities that have tried it, the in-service training possibilities are almost unlimited.

IN-SERVICE HELP AT THE STATE LEVEL

The states have been working diligently at the improvement of rural school instruction for a long time. To supply money and ideas at the state level for the in-service growth of teachers dates back at least to World War I. The institute plan was the beginning.

THE EARLY INSTITUTE PROGRAM

The Minnesota Plan. As early as 1918, institutes in Minnesota were being planned, directed, and financed by the state department of education.³ Institute leaders were recruited from the state teachers' colleges. These institutions released their heads of rural education for the fall term of the year to conduct institutes. The state department provided the finances and the over-all leadership.

³ The example described here was originally treated in the United States Office of Education, 1931 bulletin, *Certain State Programs for the Improvement of Rural School Instruction*.

Outstanding teachers were taken from their classrooms to assist. A county institute program generally covered a school week of five days. Its discussions, demonstrations, exhibits, and group summaries mark it as a forerunner of today's workshop. The plan was later modified to enable the institute instructors to visit schools and classrooms in the county in connection with an institute.

Later, a modification replaced the college instructors with four special institute instructors, hired on a 10-months' basis for the leadership function. The original appointees had two things in common, (1) a wide range of experience extending from rural school teaching to the training of prospective teachers, and (2) the ability to co-operate with others and to initiate procedures designed to win the co-operation of others.

The state department co-ordinated the entire institute effort through an official experienced in rural education. It provided all personnel services. The only cost to the counties was that of local arrangements, a minor item. The work of the four institute leaders included two periods in the field and two in the office. The first field period extended from early September to the middle of December. During this first period, 50 to 60 of the 84 counties held their institutes. The remainder took advantage of the second field period, from February to May. The state co-ordinator would begin in July to arrange dates and preliminary details with the county superintendents.

Thirty years ago Minnesota set a pattern for institute operation that is seldom surpassed today. Those early institutes were not isolated in-service ventures. They were grown out of county classrooms. In turn, they were carried back into the rural school to enrich it. This was accomplished through the state's manipulation of the four institute leaders.

In preparing for a specific institute the state leader went to the county seat to confer with the superintendent. He then went into the rural schools to observe and to confer with teachers. Conferences and visits were used to aid in planning the institutes so that they would serve local conditions. The visitor in the schools showed about the same concern for local instruction that is shown by a county or state supervisor. Instructional materials, curriculum, teacher planning and preparation, class size, pupil ability and achievement, and similar matters were commonly considered. Some

time after an institute, it was the custom for the state leader to visit the schools again in an attempt to carry over the in-service work begun earlier. The institute work was truly in-service training for county superintendents as well as for teachers. It represented a well-organized supervisory program, co-ordinating teacher growth at the county level by means of state leadership.

STATES SHIFT THE EMPHASIS

Kentucky builds a program. In-service as a concept is recognized today not only in the philosophy of the state responsibility for education, but in the law as well. In the Kentucky statutes, for instance, is found this legal mandate.

The State Department of Education is hereby authorized to establish, direct, and maintain a state-wide program of in-service teacher training. Said program shall be organized and operated for the purpose of improving instruction in the public common schools, and for the improvement of the leadership qualities and professional competence of the principals, supervisors, and teachers, and for such other services in the improvement of instruction in the public common schools as may be approved from time to time by the State Board of Education on the recommendation of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. The program shall be directed and supervised by the Division of Teacher Training and Certification in accordance with a program approved by the Superintendent of Public Instruction and in accordance with the rules and regulations of the State Board of Education approved on the recommendation of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.⁴

Just as did Minnesota three decades before, Kentucky realized that the implementation of the in-service idea calls for staff personnel. The state was divided into four regional districts, and one State Department staff member was employed for each. These four supervisors provide consultative service to the in-service efforts of the state's 232 local school systems, and provide the leadership spark necessary to keep the program moving. The program has been planned and carried forward co-operatively by the State Department, the local school systems, the 33 teacher education institutions in the state, and the Kentucky Education Association.

Basic principles. In the charter of beliefs set up as a guide for all

⁴ Kentucky State Department of Education, *Improving Instruction through In-Service Teacher Training* (Frankfort: the Department), Educational Bulletin, 19:4 (June, 1951), p. 189.

effort in the program are found the typical principles that are generally advanced in in-service today. It is interesting to note this similarity in philosophical pattern from state to state. The in-service program as envisioned in Kentucky is based on the following fundamental beliefs:

1. That the individual teacher and administrator must accept the obligation to continue to improve himself personally and professionally. This includes travel, wide reading, participation in community activities, periodic attendance at summer schools or workshops, and other activities which help to develop a broad cultural background as well as professional competency.
2. That good teachers grow continuously through participation in professional activities.
3. That motivation for participation comes from the teachers.
4. That activities of the program are cooperatively planned by the total staff—elementary and secondary teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents.
5. That the activities are determined by the needs of the participants. Problems with which teachers need help are considered.
6. That the activities and experiences develop professional spirit and provide personal as well as professional growth.
7. That democratic supervision or leadership releases the creative powers within the group. Everyone feels free to make his unique contribution.
8. That the activities are coordinated into a unified 12-grade school program.
9. That the activities of the program provide for improvement of teaching through continuous evaluation.⁵

The organization of the program in Kentucky has been simple yet extensive. In each of the 33 colleges a committee was formed to work with the State Department. The local schools formed their own planning committees. The colleges have provided resource persons from their staffs in furthering the specific programs of the local systems. This help has been supplemented and co-ordinated by the four regional supervisors working out of the State Department. Regional conferences for planning and evaluation purposes are held at intervals and tend to tie the whole state effort into a single program. The conclusions reached at some of these conferences would indicate that the program represents a broad attack upon all types of instructional handicaps. The following list of intentions have come out of such conferences as those held at Lexington, Coving-

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 190.

ton, London, Pikeville, Morehead, Louisville, Bowling Green, and Murray:

The development of state curriculum guides in language, arithmetic, and social studies; the use of college representatives in local programs; the availability of state consultants upon call; the dissemination of information on the total program as an aid to progress; more attention to instruction in meetings of teachers' organizations; preschool local conferences including both elementary and secondary teachers; the provision of more supervisory personnel by the local school systems; change in the textbook law to allow greater flexibility in instruction; more follow-up of graduates on the job by the teachers' colleges; the improvement of pupil reporting methods; area meetings of supervisors; State Department help for principals; improvement of testing programs; closer community relationships; the improvement of teaching techniques; and the encouragement of educational travel and study.

In looking back at the progress made in this program, State Superintendent Hodgkin said:

This new service is being received with enthusiasm by teachers, supervisors, principals, and superintendents. They are taking great pride in getting projects underway in their schools. It has tended to improve teaching staff morale. Teachers appear inspired to do their best.

It has stimulated all teachers in the school system to work together as a team in determining and deciding upon the problems of instruction which they need to attack, deciding upon methods of better teaching, and in determining what is the best practice to pursue in regard to home work, reporting to parents, and promotion.

We are endeavoring to assist superintendents in evaluating their programs in terms of what immediate steps toward improvement should be taken. The superintendents of the districts in which we have worked have been prompted to focus attention upon the kind of teaching that is going on in their schools. These superintendents and their teachers are asking us to help them on such practical problems as these:

1. How do I know when I have a good first grade program?
2. How can my teachers and I plan a daily schedule of work so that every child will get the maximum opportunity to participate in reading?
3. Where can my teachers visit to see good teaching being done on the basis of newest educational practices?
4. What kind of books should I buy for my high school classes so all of the boys and girls will have something on their interest level and at the same time on their reaching level?
5. How do we plan a program based on the individual pupil's needs?

6. How can standard tests be used as learning techniques instead of a promotion basis?

7. On what basis should promotion be determined?

8. Should children be denied high school education if they cannot meet all the academic standards set up for entrance into high schools?

9. How can we put our teaching on a more personal basis so that every child will develop to his maximum? ⁶

The Kentucky program is unusual in that states seldom undertake such an all-out co-ordinated attack upon the instructional program. Apparently the enthusiasm of the leadership in the State Department and in the training institutions is having its influence upon the local schools. This in-service program has been inaugurated in the deep belief that something good can come from it.

Alabama study. One of the more recent and more helpful state gestures in this field has been the Alabama publication, *In-Service Education—a Handbook for the Development of Programs*. It is a 95-page bulletin prepared by the State Department of Education as a guide for local leadership. It covers the nature and scope of in-service education, basic principles, the study program in the school system, the study program in the individual school, the preschool conference, and other phases of the topic. It is a fine testimonial to state acceptance of responsibility in this movement.

THE PROVISION OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

It is fair to say that for the nation's schools as a whole the amount of instructional leadership provided is in direct proportion to the amount of personnel employed for the purpose. It is never easy to determine the general extent of this provision. A most comprehensive and revealing study is one made by the American Association of School administrators, and reported in their thirtieth yearbook.⁷

Their questionnaire was distributed to the 3,220 city superintendencies listed in the *Educational Directory* of the United States Office of Education, with a return of 49 per cent. It was sent to the 3,435 rural superintendencies listed, with a 30 per cent return. The provision for directors, supervisors, and other technically trained assistants in the central office staffs is indicated in Tables 9 and 10.

⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 206-207.

⁷ American Association of School Administrators, *The American School Superintendency*, thirtieth yearbook (Washington, D. C., 1952: National Education Association), pp. 209-226, 298-300, 329-334.

In these statistics are found the seeds of supervision, curriculum improvement, and in-service training. Where the planting was limited, so will be the yield.

The story of supervision is packed with idealism, enthusiasm, contribution, and accomplishment; yet it has its sordid side. It is streaked with complacency and indifference, with limited investment

TABLE 9^a
SUPERINTENDENTS' ASSISTANTS IN CITIES OVER 2500

<i>Type of Position</i>	<i>Per Cent of Cities Reporting the Position</i>
1. Supervisor of music.....	51.0%
2. Head nurse.....	39.4
3. Supervisor of art.....	36.9
4. Head custodian.....	36.8
5. Supervisor of physical education.....	34.5
6. Director of elementary education.....	32.3
7. Superintendent of buildings and grounds.....	31.2
8. Head of lunchroom services.....	27.8
9. School physician.....	27.4
10. Business manager, responsible to superintendent.....	21.8
11. Supervisor of health.....	21.8
12. Director of census and attendance.....	21.5
13. Supervisor of audio-visual education.....	21.1
14. Supervisor of vocational subjects.....	21.0
15. Supervisor of counseling and guidance.....	19.3
16. Supervisor or director of high-school instruction.....	18.9
17. Supervisor of home economics.....	16.8
18. Director of adult education.....	16.6
19. Assistant, deputy, associate superintendent.....	13.8
20. Supervisor of school library services.....	13.5
21. Psychologist.....	12.0
22. Administrative assistant to the superintendent.....	11.7
23. Supervisor of education of the handicapped.....	11.4
24. Supervisor of research, tests, and measurements.....	10.3
25. Business manager, responsible to the board.....	10.3
26. General supervisor of instruction.....	9.8
27. Director of school health services.....	9.3
28. Supervisor of reading.....	6.3
29. Supervisor of pupil personnel.....	6.0
30. Supervisor of curriculum.....	4.5
31. Psychiatrist.....	2.6
32. Statistician.....	2.5
33. Supervisor of employee personnel.....	2.2

^a *Ibid.*, p. 299.

of time and money. No professional assistants at all was the report of 30 per cent of the county school offices in America, 61 per cent of the supervisory-union offices, and 40 per cent of all rural superintendents combined. And no assistants were found in 40 per cent of the cities of from 2,500 to 10,000 population, and in 28 per cent of all cities.

It has long since been established in school operation that when there is a shortage of help in the central office, administrative and not supervisory functions will be handled first. This is natural, for

TABLE 10⁹
ASSISTANTS TO RURAL SUPERINTENDENTS⁹

Type of Position	Percentage of Superintendents Reporting the Position
1. Supervisor of music.....	21.2%
2. Head custodian.....	21.0
3. Supervisor of elementary instruction.....	20.5
4. Head of lunchroom services.....	15.0
5. Assistant superintendent.....	14.9
6. General supervisor of instruction.....	13.9
7. Supervisor of physical education.....	12.3
8. Head nurse.....	11.3
9. Director of high-school instruction.....	10.6
10. Director of census and attendance.....	10.5
11. Administrative assistant.....	9.9
12. Supervisor of home economics.....	9.2
13. Supervisor of art.....	8.2
14. Supervisor of vocational subjects.....	8.2
15. Director of school transportation.....	7.9
16. School physician.....	7.3
17. Supervisor of health.....	7.1
18. Supervisor of library services.....	6.6
19. Supervisor of counseling and guidance.....	6.2
20. Superintendent of buildings and grounds.....	6.1
21. Supervisor of audio-visual education.....	5.3
22. Supervisor of education of the handicapped.....	4.7
23. Business manager.....	3.2
24. Director of school health services.....	3.2
25. Psychologist.....	2.9
26. Director of adult education.....	2.7
27. Supervisor of pupil personnel.....	2.6
28. Supervisor of research and testing.....	2.2

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 330.

the operational matters are most impelling. Instruction seems to be able to continue as it was yesterday, last year, or year before. Hiring a teacher has seemed more urgent than helping one who is having difficulties in a classroom. Extending the building to provide more classrooms has seemed more urgent than broadening the curriculum to serve more children. As stated earlier, inefficiency or delinquency in school administration carries its own death warrant; but ineffectiveness in the curriculum can live on indefinitely, undetected by those who pay the school's bills.

The blank spots in the national supervisory picture are not always limited to the smaller community. The author wrote to 50 cities ranging in size from 30,000 on up, asking for a statement of their in-service training programs and a list of their supervisory positions. In one fifth of these school systems, supervisory leadership was limited to the positions of principal and superintendent. From an Eastern seaboard city of 50,000 population came this short reply: "We have no program of in-service training for teachers in our system."

From a city of about 30,000 in the West South Central states came this response: "Replying to your inquiry as to how the in-service training for teachers is conducted in our schools, I am sorry to confess that we have nothing that I think would help you. We are at present having a life and death struggle to keep schools open nine months in the year, and have had to dispose of all special supervisors that we have ever employed. Administrative help is practically non-existent. We can only encourage teachers to continue their studies and in this regard have been fairly successful by providing some salary increases for improved training."

And from another East coast city, of near 100,000 population, the superintendent writes: "I think it best that I do not participate in your research program on supervision. My community has not been too affluent of late and still continues its school department as a one-man job. The superintendent has to do everything except the writing of employment cards."

Needless to say, these three examples are exceptions to the rule, the rule being that the typical city over 30,000 provides an in-service program and some supervisory personnel. In the superintendents' yearbook study, treated above, the cities between 100,000 and 200,000 support these positions besides the typical supervisors:

- General supervisor or director of instruction, 26 per cent.
- Supervisor or director of elementary education, 80 per cent.
- Supervisor or director of high-school instruction, 44 per cent.
- Supervisor or director of curriculum, 26 per cent.
- Supervisor of pupil personnel, 33 per cent.
- Supervisor of counseling and guidance, 46 per cent.¹⁰

THE INSTRUCTIONAL CENTER

No school system is complete today without a curriculum laboratory—a center of instructional materials and literature to act as professional nourishment for the in-service program. It might well be referred to as the instructional center. In the large city system, or the county school office, it may well be a combination professional library and curriculum laboratory, with at least one full-time librarian. In the small school district, the more modest outlay will reflect the same spirit of instructional progress. These curriculum centers are common today, and the dependence of good supervisory programs upon them is fast being accepted. Typical of their features are these:

1. The library of professional books, periodicals, teaching guides, and similar professional publications.
2. The library of audio-visual materials for reference purposes.
3. Work space for individuals and small groups to be able to take advantages of the library. Provision for showing a film or examining a map as well as for reading a book or periodical.
4. Conference space for groups to meet in study programs, such as in curriculum development.
5. Typing and mimeographing facilities.
6. Files of instructional materials.
7. Files of textbooks in use, including manuals, workbooks, and teaching guides.
8. Files of standardized tests, teacher-made tests, and other evaluation materials.

This laboratory is a center of the development of instructional materials, as well as a reference center for those who are studying more or less on their own. Besides the regular teachers in service, student teachers commonly have access to these facilities.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 211.

SOME CONCLUSIONS

The function of in-service training is the improvement of the quality of performance of the school staff. The ultimate goal is the uplift of the school program, but the immediate goal is the advancement of teacher performance. Common practice in the schools indicates that this concern includes the personal as well as the professional growth of those being in-serviced. For instance, experience in community work and travel are but two of the many summer activities by which teachers meet in-service training requirements. This type of activity, in practice, now ranks side by side with the activity of a more professional nature such as an extension course in teaching reading.

It is not difficult to make a case for in-service training. There has always been a shortage of well-trained teachers. There has always been a noticeable turnover of teachers, calling for attention to the new ones. There have always been new developments in education to be carried to the schools. But perhaps the in-service idea finds its true function even beyond these three accepted duties of supervision. Behind in-service is the recognition of the fact that even the best teacher or administrator is a person who has the right—and should have the opportunity—to continue his professional development.

There is one dichotomy in in-service training. One branch of the endeavor represents group study situations set up or approved by the local school system. The other branch represents the somewhat isolated in-service steps taken by teachers as growth pick-ups, such as travel or summer work experience. The first reflects what might be spoken of as a program, calling for supervisory leadership. It opens the way to all the democratic practices commonly approved for supervisory leadership today. The second branch of activities can hardly be spoken of as a supervisory program. Such effort calls not for supervisory leadership but for approval by an accounting office.

Those school systems that require a specified amount of in-service activity must beware of the old educational curse of credit chasing. If motivated by credit accumulation, the in-service program is apt to be dominated not by pressing instructional matters but by the pressing need of credit accumulation. It is quite possible that the in-service course or activity that is convenient may take precedence over that which is more meaningful.

Perhaps then, the success of an organized in-service effort will be dependent upon a program that emphasizes group effort, planned realistically around the program of the local school, and measured in terms of improvement in the local situation. It stands to reason that teachers are going to have a lot of interesting and profitable experiences, but if the in-service tent is stretched wide enough to encompass all of them, then the concept loses any significance it might have had.

Adventurers of the sea have worked their imaginations overtime with the idea of a mythical treasure in the Sargasso Sea. The more hopeful picture it as a vast assemblage of maritime treasures trapped in a maze of seaweed, awaiting the lucky finders. In-service training must not take on this alluring concept. It must not be lost in the imagination as endless assemblage of professional treasures. When found by a school system, an in-service training of any value will be a rather well defined list of professional activities, with instructional leadership apparent in the program.

For Further Consideration

Is the workshop more successful if arrangement for college credit is provided the participants? What are the general features of a successful workshop? What difficulties might a school system face in holding for teachers and staff a preschool conference the week prior to the opening of school? How can institutes still be used to advantage in promoting professional growth? What are the types of things the state might be doing in providing for the development of teachers and administrators? What leadership should the principal give in in-service programs?

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19

The Supervisor's Growth

PEOPLE are known by the lives they live, and school supervisors are no exception to the rule. They are revealed by the services they perform; but likewise by the articles they write, the associations they form, and the conventions they hold. In the purposes and programs of their professional organizations are found the image of the position that the supervisor likens himself unto. The ideal is high.

Either as individual workers or as organized groups, supervisors are remarkably earnest and patient. In the beginning of this book an attempt was made to distinguish between the functions of supervision and administration (Chapter 2). Perhaps the supervisor's distinguishing mark is his patience as much as is the function of his office. He holds a deep faith in the improvement of the work of the school; and in his devotion to his task, he reveals the patience of a true scientist. He has gained the reputation of being the student of the teaching profession—the one who appreciates cause and effect, and is willing to await the latter after the former is set in motion. He isn't even out of character when he attends his conventions. He carries his studious tendencies with him.

Each winter the members of the supervisors' national organization—the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development—convene for almost a week. Once the delegates get their badges and hotel rooms, they immediately break down into study groups. The men take off their coats, the women arrange their hats, and they then settle down around the conference tables for an earnest tussle with their problems. They spend night and day in what would seem a life-and-death struggle to find out the truth about teaching and learning.

The attendance at such meetings represents approximately a third

of the total membership of over 6,000. It takes more committee rooms to handle a national supervisors' convention than it does a national school administrators' convention with five times the attendance. Administrators, when away from the daily pressures of their jobs, appreciate the relaxing security of the convention auditorium and its spotlighted platform. But supervisors seem to have a natural abhorrence of being told, and prefer to exchange experiences and find out for themselves. They are long on committees or round-tables, and short on speakers. From the beginning, they have been the champions of group participation. They are a patient lot.

On the other hand, the school administrator, accustomed as he is to working under pressure, is most willing to take the short cut in his conventions—to be brought up to date from the platform. With little time to meditate on the job back home, it would be most unnatural for him to spend long hours in group conference at his convention.

This little deduction is no attempt to give more credit to one position than the other. Both represent a natural balance that is needed in school operation, and the working characteristics of the two parties reflect the respective working conditions of the two positions. It will be recalled what the school administrator had in mind when he created the supervisor's position early in this century (Chapter 4). He was prompted by the numerous details of his own work, and looked for someone who would have time to work more carefully at the job of helping teachers with their classrooms. The more leisurely and studious approach was implied in the creation of the staff position devoted to instruction.

The professional movement of supervisors—and their fellow instructional workers operating under such other supervisory titles as co-ordinator and director—is studied here by sampling the work of their professional associations. First is treated their national organization, followed by a discussion of the activities of some state associations. There are as many as 20 thriving state or regional associations that are affiliated with the national one.

THE ASSOCIATION FOR SUPERVISION AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT
ASCD—as it is commonly and affectionately referred to by its members—is the hub of the professional movement of the supervisors of the country. The breadth of endeavor is noted in the title, the association representing the merger a decade ago of two national groups

one advancing curriculum study and the other supervision. One was the Curriculum Society; the other was the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association.

It is safe to say that it exerts greater influence upon instructional practices in American schools than any other educational organization.¹ As a Department of the National Education Association, with headquarters in the Washington office, its publications consistently lead the best seller lists in the NEA building. School principals and superintendents have grown accustomed to turning to it for suggestion in the instructional field, just as they would turn to instructional staff members in their own school systems. As pointed out elsewhere in this study, much of the responsibility for instructional improvement in America's schools falls upon principals and superintendents, but for the direction they lean heavily upon the studies of supervisors.

Publications of ASCD. Yearbooks. The Association prides itself in the continued life of its yearbooks—as publications issued not merely for the moment. The following titles of the yearbooks of recent years reflect the concentration upon the instructional setting:

Forces Affecting American Education

Growing up in an Anxious Age

Action for Curriculum Improvement

Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools

Toward Better Teaching

Organizing the Elementary School for Living and Learning

Leadership Through Supervision

The recent yearbook *Action for Curriculum Improvement* carries the point of view that supervision and curriculum development are almost one and the same process and that any sharp distinctions between the two are of doubtful validity.

Pamphlets. For some years it has been the policy of the Association to issue pamphlet studies of instructional matters of wide interest. The need for such a study is first cleared by the Publications and Executive Committees, and the publication staff is as carefully chosen as it is for a yearbook. Among the pamphlets and other publications issued within recent years, or planned for early distribution are:

¹ Information about the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development was secured from materials graciously supplied by Arno Bellack, then Executive Secretary.

Teachers for Today's Schools
Instructional Leadership in Small Schools
Time and Funds for Curriculum Development
List of Outstanding Teaching and Learning Materials
Bibliography on Secondary Education
Better than Rating
Building Public Confidence
Group Processes in Supervision
Laymen Help Plan the Curriculum
Discipline for Today's Children and Youth
The Three R's in the Elementary School
Curriculum-Supervision Bibliography
Reporting to Parents and Pupil Progress
Programs for Early Adolescents
Working with New Teachers

Periodicals. The monthly magazine of the Association, *Educational Leadership*, is almost standard equipment today for a supervisor on the job. It is a standard reference for students of the field. Here again is to be noted the careful planning that characterizes the entire publication program of ASCD. The journals reflect a balance between elementary and secondary education, between direct curriculum planning and the broader aspects of supervision, and between theory and practice. The articles of any issue are related by a general title, the issues of any one year representing a planned balance of interests. For instance the issues of 1951 reveal this range:

Schools Attack Curriculum Problems
Schools Expand Their Programs
Controversial Issues—Why and How?
A Good Environment for Learning
How Foster Values and Ideals?
In-Service Program for Continued Growth
Children and Youth in Today's Crisis
Schools Share in Search for Peace

Activities of the Association. In addition, the *News Exchange* is sent five times a year to all members. It is a newsletter that serves as a means of direct communication between the Washington staff and the total membership. A major concern is that of inspiring widespread participation by members in the program in spite of increasing membership. It is not uncommon for about 1,000 of the almost 7,000 members to engage in any one year in some phase of the program on the national level.

Organization for work. The Washington office is staffed with an executive secretary and editor, an associate editor, a research consultant, and four assistants. The officers of the Association are elected annually, an elected executive board serving a longer period. At any one time there are at work eight or ten standing committees in addition to the special project groups such as those developing year-books. Some of these standing committees are the Legislative Committee, Research Board, Committee to Study Structure and Organization of ASCD, Committee on Instructional Materials, Committee on Preparation of Core Teachers, Appraisal and Plans Committee, Publications Committee, and International Understanding Committee.

One of the greatest strengths of the program is the work carried on by the affiliated state and regional groups. Summer workshops, regional conferences, state consultant programs, and numerous kinds of committee activities are among these activities. Currently 25 state groups and two regional associations, comprising ten states, are affiliated. Field contacts with these groups are taken seriously by the Washington office. The programs carried on by these affiliated groups—segments of the national organization—are well planned and directly related to the problems faced by the members in their own working situations.

The Association is developing a major program in the field of curriculum research. A research consultant now works out of the headquarters office in collaboration with state and regional groups in developing research programs. The idea is to encourage the practical on-the-job research that is needed for continuous school improvement, correlating the resources available in the respective areas.

The national convention of the Association is one of the highlights of the year's work. As revealed at the beginning of this chapter, it serves as a clearing house for ideas from the field and is conducted so that all those who attend have an opportunity to contribute.

THE GROWTH OF SUPERVISORS AT THE STATE LEVEL

At the midcentury mark, the United States Office of Education reported 9,448 supervisors in the nation's schools.² At the same time their national professional organization reported a membership of

² United States Office of Education, *Statistical Circular*, No. 285 (Washington, D. C.: the Office, January, 1951), p. 4.

6,574.³ It might be assumed that a majority of these memberships represent supervisory personnel, but supervisors are not willing to rest their case for professional growth with their national organization alone. The state supervisors' association is common from coast to coast, and the annual state conference of supervisors is well established in this in-service program.

The state conference. For the past few years supervisors and other instructional officers have been going to workshops and conferences to study such topics as these:

What is the nature of the group process and what are some of the more important patterns of social interaction?

What are the characteristics of a democratic work group and how is democratic leadership differentiated from domination?

How does the process of group discussion function as an application of democratic principles, and what are kinds of discussion techniques that may be employed?

What elements contribute to effective group leadership and the creation of a productive group discussion?

How can reality, practice, and role playing be applied in supervisory techniques and teacher improvement? ⁴

It is true that conducting conferences, institutes, workshops, faculty meetings, and similar group meetings of teachers is one of the typical activities that will continue to take the time of supervisors. They are as important as they are time-consuming. The study of the most effective techniques of organizing and conducting such meetings is bound to be of interest to those who find themselves carrying the responsibility. It is essential that a supervisor strengthen such ability.

The amount of time that supervisors can afford to be away from their jobs for their own conventions or conferences is limited. The pressure of the demands in almost any local or county school district makes this so. As has been brought out elsewhere in this study, the supervision of instruction in America's schools is handicapped by a limited provision of personnel for the work. Consequently, when one leaves his job for a few days to attend a conference of

³ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, *1951 Report of the Executive Secretary to the Board of Directors* (Washington, D. C.: the Association), p. 1.

⁴ Jessie Graham, "A Workshop for Supervisors," *Educational Leadership*, 5:5 (February, 1948), p. 333.

supervisors, every meeting should promise maximum returns to the work back home.

If the conference is set up to help improve the participants' ability to apply the group process to their own meetings back home, how can this be done most efficiently? It is suggested that one of the more promising means is to set up the conference to handle some of the pressing matters of curriculum and instruction. The organization for the study of these matters can then follow good group techniques. Consequently, the participant has the opportunity to sharpen his understanding of good group procedures at the same time that he is devoting himself to problems of immediate concern. The two examples that follow reveal this approach.

THE TEXAS ASSOCIATION

An examination of the programs and reports of state supervisory conferences leaves no doubt as to the seriousness and the promise of the gatherings. The following list of study groups, into which a typical state meeting was organized for work, denotes the breadth of the conception of their duties held by these leaders of instruction.

1. What makes supervision click?
2. What are promising ventures in in-service programs?
3. How may the curriculum be revitalized?
4. What ventures may be developed by community centered schools?
5. How may moral and spiritual values be taught?
6. What are the practical applications of child study?
7. What should a publication of evaluating pupil progress and reporting to parents include?
8. What should be included in the education of elementary school personnel?

At a recent annual state conference of Texas supervisors, study groups were organized around these eight questions. Twenty was set as the ideal number of members for a discussion group. The third question called for three groups, formed to consider the elementary, junior high, and senior high curriculum. The fourth question also required three divisions:—one each for the total school system, elementary schools, and secondary schools. The breadth of participation in the conference is further indicated by the fact that service was provided by 69 leaders, recorders, and resource people.

To assure a conference that would touch local matters of the

participants, the membership of the association was polled three months in advance to secure suggestions for group problems.

The Texas Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development was organized as late as 1948, yet the state membership in the national organization already ranks third, being bettered only by California and New York. The Association is now sponsoring four major projects: an annual summer one-week work conference at the University of Texas, a study of parent-teacher co-operation for school improvement, a bulletin on reporting to parents, and its winter three-day conference already mentioned. A quarterly news letter is issued to the total membership. The purpose of the Association, as set out in its constitution is "the promotion of curriculum study, the improvement of instruction and supervision, and the stimulation of professional growth."⁵

A LOUISIANA CONFERENCE

The annual state conference is not always the sole responsibility of the professional organization. Often schools and colleges of education, or the state department co-operates with the state association to sponsor the meeting. The value of this procedure is apparent. It broadens the base of instructional leadership in the state, and teams together the agencies that influence educational advancement. The Louisiana conference represents such a program. The following list of study groups, into which one such conference was organized for work, denotes the breadth of the supervisors' conception of their duties.

1. Supervisor leadership of in-service education programs for teacher growth.
2. The supervisor's role in the use of evaluative criteria by elementary and high schools.
3. A look into and self-analysis of our parish (county) and state supervisory programs and services.
4. The school's responsibility in child understanding, guidance, and mental hygiene.
5. The supervisor's role in selecting, procuring, and promoting the use of instructional materials.
6. Squaring classroom practices with modern educational tenets and objectives.

⁵ Information pertaining to the work of the Texas Association was kindly supplied by the 1952 president, Raymond J. Free.

7. The ever-growing importance of teacher recruitment, training, and selection.

8. Developing the school as the focus of community growth and improved quality of living.

9. The role of the schools in the present national emergency.⁶

It is interesting to note the similarity of the problems whose answers supervisors persistently pursue. The pattern of the study approach from state to state is just as similar as are the matters treated. For instance, the county supervisors of Florida in their annual meeting join study groups just as do the instructional leaders in Louisiana and Texas. During the year, the Florida State Department of Education issues to all supervisors a bulletin, *Supervisory News Notes*, which carries information of advantage in local operation.

THE CALIFORNIA SCHOOL SUPERVISORS ASSOCIATION

Chapter 5 carried a sample list of the miscellaneous titles under which supervisors in California give their service to the cities and the counties of the state. In their professional organization they are one of the most active groups in the country. The California School Supervisors Association is not only closely affiliated with the national organization, it is also affiliated with these five organizations of its own state: the California Teachers Association, Teacher Education Council, California Committee on the Study of Education, Cooperative Committee on School Finance, and California Society for Secondary Education.

Purposes. The Association looks at itself as "a professional organization of public school supervisors and directors of curriculum representing highly specialized and technical services. In the Association these services are utilized in continuing professional committees set up to formulate policies acceptable to the group and to study and develop programs of action for meeting current educational problems."⁷ The purposes of the organization are:

1. To promote the welfare of children and youth.
2. To maintain the faith of the American people in education essential to democracy.

⁶ Louisiana State Department of Education, *Setting Our Sights for Effective Supervision*, Mid-winter Work Conference for Supervisors, 1951.

⁷ "Resolutions of the California School Supervisors Association," *California Journal of Elementary Education*, 17:2 (November, 1948), p. 67.

3. To improve the professional competency of its membership.
4. To develop potential qualities of democratic leadership in its members.
5. To provide an opportunity for expression of group opinion on significant educational issues.
6. To contribute with other organized groups in sound educational planning.

Its adherence to its purposes is apparent in the annual resolutions that the Association recently announced. These resolutions, presented at some length, treated these topics: (1) preservation of American democracy; (2) balanced educational program; (3) understanding public education; (4) teaching moral and spiritual values; (5) conservation education; (6) United Nations and UNESCO; (7) human relationships; (8) civilian defense; (9) school construction, equipment, and supplies; (10) driver training; (11) television; (12) recruitment of supervisors; (13) special education; (14) rural education; (15) guidance; (16) legislation; (17) work of the National Education Association; (18) library consultant; and (19) the annual conference itself.⁸ An example of these resolutions of good purpose is this one taken from the list above:

Moral and Spiritual Values

We recommend that every public school continue and intensify the emphasis on moral and spiritual values in order to develop strong character, integrity, and ethical conduct in children and youth as a means of fortifying our democratic society with moral controls.

We believe that the home, the church, the school, and all other educative forces in the community share the responsibility for inculcating in children and youth moral and spiritual values; that our democratic society places on the home and the church the obligation to instruct youth in a religious faith; that the public schools should continue to teach youth moral and spiritual values accepted by all religious faiths and that they can do this without jeopardizing religious freedom and endangering the policy of separation of church and state.

We pledge ourselves to set up classroom conditions and situations for children and youth to assume personal responsibility, self-control, self-reliance, self-direction, and initiative as individuals and to manifest co-operation, consideration, self-government, and group participation skills in group undertakings.⁹

⁸ "Resolutions, California State Supervisors Association," *California Journal of Elementary Education*, 20:2 (November, 1951), pp. 67-72.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 68.

Organization for work. Membership is open to everyone interested in the Association's activities and purposes. The organization is divided into five subsidiary geographical sections, a fact that assures broad participation by the membership. Besides having its own meetings during the year, each section has representation on each of the committees of the larger organization. Naturally, the annual state conference gives the membership a chance to co-ordinate all of this effort.

At the present writing the following professional committees are engaged in the work of the Association: committees on Art Education; Twelve Months' School Community Cooperation; Early Childhood Education; Guidance in Education; Health, Physical Education, and Recreation; Instructional Materials; Music Education; Community Relations; Recruitment and Education of Supervisory Personnel; Research in Education; Science Education; Rural Education; Social Studies Curriculum; Special Education; and Teacher Education.¹⁰

Then there are always such miscellaneous groups at work as the Resolutions committee, the Scholarship committee, and the Legislative committee.

Work of the Bay Section. The five sections of the state organization are in a sense little associations within themselves. They have their officers, meetings, committee work, and bulletins. For instance, in a two-day conference the Bay Section organized these eight study groups, each with its leader, observer, and recorder: one each on (1) managing children, (2) working with parents, (3) how supervisors can help teachers learn skills in community relations, (4) how the teacher looks to the supervisor, (5) sequence in the in-service program, (6) what can be learned only on the job, (7) guideposts for in-service education, and (8) teacher-personal relationships.¹¹

In such meetings as these can be found the in-service training of supervisors at its best. When they get together to study their own problems, there is every evidence that supervisors exert themselves for their own professional improvement. In the conference mentioned above, one study group set out to diagnose the problem of

¹⁰ California School Supervisors Association, *Handbook for Officers and Committee Chairmen* (Sacramento, 1952), p. 6.

¹¹ Bay Section of the California School Supervisors' Association, *News Letter*, No. 5, January, 1951, pp. 2-13.

teacher-supervisor relationships. The study approach of the group, as outlined below, can be cited as an example of the professional earnestness of supervisors.

How the Teacher Looks to the Supervisor

In delimiting this problem to specific phases for consideration in the short time of the two-day conference, many aspects were suggested. Some of these were:

1. Supervisor-teacher relationships.
2. How the supervisor looks to teachers.
3. How the teacher feels about the supervisor.
4. How the supervisor feels about supervising teachers.

Some of the questions considered briefly in the delimiting process were:

1. What does the supervisor do?
2. Are supervisors' goals too high?
3. How have methods changed?
4. Are there some teachers who do not want a supervisor to come near?
5. How can we establish rapport?
6. What are the purposes of supervision?
7. What are the merits of classroom supervision as opposed to "on call" supervision?
8. Are there some teachers who might get along as well with or without supervision?
9. How many teachers are actually opposed to supervision?
10. What effect does the attitude of the administrator have on the supervisory program?
11. How do we move from a fine social attitude to a professional plane? From rapport to accomplishment?
12. Does the limited amount of time we are able to give result in feelings of futility to the teachers as well as to the supervisors?
13. Would some teachers respond to a group approach rather than an individual approach?
14. How much of our time do we give to the resourceful super-teacher as compared with the time given to the failing teacher?
15. What kinds of teachers reject supervision?
16. Do some supervisors give cause for rejection?

The original problem was thus narrowed to: *The Specific Problem of Rejection*. While it was recognized that rejection results in only a small percentage of cases, it was considered important that it receive attention. It was agreed that rejection is a degree term and that it is resistance to something specific operating in the supervisor-teacher relationship. Consideration was then given to these two specifics: cause of resistance, and supervisory services and techniques to overcome the resistance.

Causes of resistance:

1. Resistance to the unknown.
2. Personal resistance to areas of interest.
3. Fatigue and inertia.
4. Conflicting interests.
5. Pressure of authoritative demands.
6. Over-use of some teachers, arousing feelings of those not given opportunities.
7. Lack of readiness to participate.
8. Satisfaction with own area of service.
9. Disinterest in other areas and levels.

Supervisory services and techniques:

1. Supervise through the group process technique.
2. Allow the problem being considered to determine the constituent.
3. Permit the group to meet only until the problem is solved.
4. Accept responsibility at all levels for understanding both the total educational program and the functioning of group processes.
5. Develop common interests to facilitate the involvement.
6. Help teacher schedule in such a way that interests coincide.
7. Be aware of time for readiness for teacher participation.
8. Evaluate demands to meet those most important.
9. Analyze situation for cause and nature of resistance.
10. Assign a value to proposal being resisted, to determine how important it actually is.
11. Value outcome of "what is going on."
12. Look beyond the irritants to ascertain the real problem.

The group concluded its study with these recommendations for continued study of the problem of meeting teacher needs:

1. Study areas of purposes of supervision with emphasis on specific bases.
2. Re-examine techniques of supervision with emphasis on the group approach to supplement the individual approach.
3. Focus on the dynamics of behavior or human relationships.¹²

The activities of state associations, as revealed in this chapter, reflect leadership among the instructional leaders themselves. Although group leadership is apparent on all sides, perhaps every state association has its key individuals who over the years have acted as a moving force for unity of supervision and improved professional effort. In California such a person has been Helen Heffernan, leader in

¹² Bay Section of the California School Supervisors' Association, *op. cit.*, pp. 5-7.

elementary education in the State Department of Education. It is difficult to think of the state's continuous advancement in the supervision of instruction without thinking of Miss Heffernan in that connection.

A PATTERN OF LEADERSHIP

The continuous growth and interest in the national organization would indicate that supervision's best days are still ahead. Instructional leadership in America's public schools is no longer a miscellaneous collection of individual efforts; it is something more than the sum of all these individual attacks upon instructional problems. The state, regional, and national supervisory organizations give leadership to the task. Their large memberships and active programs reveal the interest of the local supervisory leader in help and his eagerness to seek it through co-operative professional endeavor. It is group leadership at its best. In the way they organize to study their problems in their professional organizations, supervisors are setting a good example of the co-operative processes that they seek to establish in classrooms.

In contrast, school administrators are not beyond the panel stage. When attending conventions, they listen to either a speaker or a panel. The panel usually takes so much time there is little opportunity for the audience to participate.

It was pointed out at the beginning of the chapter that supervisors have gained the reputation of being the students of instruction: its purposes, procedures, and evaluation. Further evidence of this is found in the journals of education. Supervisors produce the bulk of the articles dealing with the improvement of instruction. They are challenged for the title only by college professors. The continued attempt of supervisors to organize their own thoughts on these matters results in a heavy editorial contribution to education. For instance, *Educational Leadership*, the journal of their national organization, is generally accepted as a leading professional publication in the field of instructional improvement.

Travel policy. School administration has accepted attendance at educational conventions and conferences as a promising phase of in-service development for staff leaders. In the budget a reasonable amount is provided for this program. The in-service movement has

placed upon local supervisors, principals, and other administrators and staff leaders the heavy responsibility for the continuous professional growth of the teaching staff. Consequently, the very idea reflects a drain upon the ingenuity of the leadership. It invites an accompanying program of professional advancement for the staff leadership. It would be foolish for a school system to attempt to develop its teaching staff through an enriched local in-service program and at the same time starve its staff leadership. Liberal provisions for attendance at educational conferences are a necessity. Such a policy should be co-operatively developed by all concerned.

Summer school teaching. One of the common practices of school supervisors is to do teaching on the campus during part of the summer. This has the advantage of bringing into the graduate course or workshop the fresh experience from the field that the work of the supervisor represents. In addition, it is refreshing to the supervisor. The organization of his ideas and materials in such a setting enables the supervisor to see better the things he is doing and why he is doing them. Furthermore, the campus experience brings the supervisor in contact with many school systems through their representatives. It means professional growth for the supervisor and in time will bring returns to the school system to which he returns.

Wise superintendents of schools appreciate this means of professional growth for their supervisory and administrative staffs and encourage them to leave their own offices during the summer weeks to participate in such activities. Some superintendents are quite successful in making such contacts for their supervisors and administrative assistants. If there is a slight conflict between the time schedules of such summer assignments and the work schedule in the local system, the superintendent sees the professional advantage of asking allowance of the board of education.

The research connected with the preparation of this book included a complete review of the articles in this field for the past quarter of a century. Among other things it revealed that the supervisor—the one holding a staff position as instructional leader—is a heavy contributor to educational literature.

This intensive interest and confidence of the supervisory group in their work is expressed by the following statement of a typical instructional leader in the field, an assistant curriculum director in a large school system:

We think then about the total educational program. It ought to be more than a program of order and boundaries. That program—how much time we spend just to maintain it! And we recall what it was like five years ago or ten. We think of what it could be. For if any group in education knows what a good program looks like or could look like, we are the group, we supervisors and those of us who work closely enough with supervisors to identify ourselves with them. If any group is likely to know what it takes to build and maintain and extend a good program, we are it. If any group as a whole outside the actual classrooms can be said to care about what goes on in the classroom, it can be said of us. We really care.¹³

The future movements in curriculum and instruction promise to be influenced more by the members of the supervisory group than by any other. They reflect this effectiveness by organizing themselves for study in their professional associations. Their organized professional effort is no longer limited to surveying present practice; it is directed toward refining that practice. They have achieved a democratic way of working that harnesses their total personnel. They have directed this energy toward actual classroom improvement rather than extending it all on the theory of co-operative endeavor. They have the advantage over principals of being relatively free of administrative routine. America's public schools will continue to feel the fine influence of the professional efforts of these leaders of instruction.

For Further Consideration

On an average, what percentage of a supervisor's working month might well be spent in meetings with staff members in the system other than teachers? What do supervisors consider as the most promising means they have of growing professionally on the job? In their work with their professional organizations, are there any dangers supervisors may face? Would there be advantages to supervisors in organizing on the state and national level with administrators such as principals and superintendents? Are there means of determining the effectiveness of professional organization work upon classroom instruction?

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20

The Evaluation of Teaching

IN THEIR diverse activities, supervisory workers radiate a pronounced self-confidence, which is to be interpreted as a belief that they know what they are about. The development of this vast optimism that characterizes instructional leadership today is to be attributed to something more than confidence in instructional purposes and procedures alone. This optimism reflects equally a faith in their ability to measure the effectiveness of instructional effort.

The instructional know-how that public education has stored up during this century is a boon to present-day supervision. Public education's phenomenal success in this century can hardly be considered as advance on a single pedagogical frontier. It has actually been an advance on innumerable frontiers, all united by the common bond of sympathetic understanding that a child was being educated in his public right, being helped to achieve the full stature of his native endowment and to live at his best in his democratic society.

Among these frontiers of educational progress have been those of instructional techniques and materials, of pupil guidance and child growth and development, of democratic operation and functional curriculum, and of measurement and evaluation. Our immediate concern in this chapter and the following one is the last pair, the advance in measurement and evaluation.

The scientific refinement of the educative processes was bound to bring with it emphasis upon the measurement of results. The present concern for evaluation is almost a devotion to the concept. The development of curriculum materials or new courses is not considered complete today without careful provision for their evaluation in the tryout situation. The selection of textbooks and other instruc-

tional materials is governed by objective evaluation procedures (See Table 7, Chapter 15). Supervisors hardly dare hold a professional conference without providing for an evaluation of the meeting itself. This faith of supervision in the ability to measure effort and result promises to govern supervisory practice in the years ahead.

Responsibility for evaluation. School trustees are bound to make an accounting to the supporting society of the results of the school program. Because instruction is the main feature of this educational operation, instruction must be evaluated. The evaluation of instruction is one phase of supervision, the responsibility for supervision having been delegated by the superintendent to the supervisory staff and principal.

In carrying out this responsibility, it behooves supervision to use the best methods and instruments found by accumulated research and experience to be effective. To do otherwise is to be professionally negligent. This does not mean that supervision has a prescribed course of action to follow, that it has a tested instructional yardstick to apply to the classroom. It does not mean that there exists on the in-service wall an infallible scale against which teachers are to be backed up for measurement. Evaluation is neither so restrictive nor so simple; but in supervision as in teaching, responsibility is the secret of integrity, and reasoned choice is the secret of responsibility.

In choosing its course in evaluating instruction, where does supervision begin? What does it include? It has always been more difficult for supervision to be interpretative than to be technical.

Three fronts of evaluation. There is a bit of the chicken-or-egg-first sequence difficulty in approaching the topic of evaluation in supervision. Which comes first, the evaluation of supervision or the evaluation of instruction? In the evaluation of instruction, to what degree is the judgment to be centered upon teacher effort and to what degree upon pupil effort and progress? If the nature of the instructional program is considered a reflection of the supervisory leadership, then the latter might be measured by assessing the former.

Three compelling aspects of evaluation in supervision are treated in the pages that follow: (1) the appraisal of the teacher's work (Chapter 20), (2) the measurement of the progress of the pupil (Chapter 21), and (3) the evaluation of the supervisory effort (Chapter 22). The first two represent interrelated functions of supervision.

Especially the first two of these discussions (Chapters 20 and 21) may be expected to arouse some controversy among a group of readers. The topics are controversial to begin with. For instance, any attempt of a supervisor to judge the effectiveness of a teacher is looked upon with fear by those who think that such matters should be left entirely to administrators. As to the second, the measurement of pupil progress, here again personal opinion enters the scene. We are in a period of caution relative to the judgment of instruction by means of standardized tests that emphasize subject fields.

The evaluation of supervision is picked up again in Chapter 22, with a section treating studies of teachers' opinions. In a sense, this entire book represents an evaluation of supervisory programs. The writer is not one to carry evaluation or measurement to an extreme. It is a worthy movement in the profession that deserves respect rather than worship.

THE SUPERVISOR AND TEACHER SELECTION

In teacher selection today there is a trend to gear into the processing machinery those who carry the responsibility for instructional supervision. This tendency to use supervisors and principals on interviewing boards and in other examining capacities, reflects the fact that the probable success of a beginning teacher includes the factor of placement, and that even good supervision may not be able to make up for poor placement.

Democratic administration not only shares the selection responsibility with the supervisor; it includes the teacher in the enterprise. Each year more and more school superintendents give up the practice of acting as the sole employment agent of the school district. For instance, in San Francisco, each candidate for an elementary school position is interviewed by a board composed of a supervisor, a teacher, and a principal. When a great number of candidates are being interviewed, as many as three boards are operating at once. A common evaluation sheet is used by the interviewers.

For each candidate the board has access to a folder containing information relative to his training and experience. Among these data are the references of those who have had responsibility for his student teaching. The great majority of the candidates have taught only as student teachers.

Our interest here is actually the responsibility for judging the

effectiveness of the teacher on the job. But the direct relationship of classroom success to teacher selection and placement marks as pertinent a preliminary consideration of the latter. Supervisory judgment now commonly begins in teacher selection and follows on through placement.

Home community vs. teaching community. It is not easy to determine the extent to which placement is a chance factor and to what extent it can be scientifically controlled. Roma Gans has asked: "How does a teacher from a large, mixed urban area react to the environment of a village resembling a small island of people? And how does a teacher from a small, strict community react to a congested city neighborhood with high mobility in school population? Are some teacher personalities so fluid that they remain quite the same in their attitudes toward parents, children, and other teachers no matter where they teach, while others are thrown off center by even slight variations between home background and teaching community?"¹

Perhaps the candidate for a position, in exercising his own will, holds the chance factor in placement down to a minimum. For instance, trainees who are reared in a large city, especially girls, seldom take a beginning teaching position in a rural community. To what extent this reluctance represents a devotion to the cultural advantages of the metropolitan area and to what extent it reflects the provincialism of birth in a large city is difficult to determine. In any case it means that there is little chance for a city girl to fail to adjust to a rural position because the chance to try it seldom comes.

There being so many openings in the home city each year, the city girl often takes it for granted when she enters training that there is a favorable chance of securing a position there. When connected with the Montclair, New Jersey, State Teachers College, the writer saw many women students from Newark turn from teaching after securing the training rather than accept positions out in the rural sections of the state. The difference in salaries was seldom the reason. It was a case of not being able to secure a position in the home city or within commuting distance in the suburbs.

Likewise, in the San Francisco Bay area, most of the native young women who train for teaching go to one of the institutions in the

¹ Roma Gans, "How Evaluate Teachers," *Educational Leadership*, 8:2 (November, 1950), p. 78.

TABLE 11

DATA PERTAINING TO 473 NEW ELEMENTARY TEACHERS EMPLOYED IN THE
SAN FRANCISCO PUBLIC SCHOOLS DURING A THREE-YEAR PERIOD²

Total.....	473	(100%)	Female	385	(81%)
Born in San Francisco...	240	(51%)	Male.....	88	(19%)
Born in California.....	328	(69%)	Married	181	(38%)
Trained in Bay Area ..	393	(83%)	Have children	55	(12%)
Trained in California....	419	(89%)	Age not over 25	330	(70%)
Bachelor's degree	473	(100%)	Age not over 30.....	423	(89%)
More than 30 hours be- yond A.B. degree.....	91	(19%)	Age not over 35	473	(100%)
			Regular credential	473	(100%)
			Emergency credential ...	0	

immediate vicinity, and would seldom think of seeking employment in other sections of the state. Table 11 reveals the predominance of local teachers employed in the San Francisco elementary schools.

Adjustment within a city. This does not necessarily mean that adjustment to a city position comes easily to the teacher born there. A large city school system is made up of a wide variety of school neighborhoods, as judged by the cultural, social, racial, and economic backgrounds of the residents. When a large city system such as San Francisco hires 125 or 150 beginning elementary school teachers to fill next September's openings, it is said that they are hired for the city rather than for specific posts. However, the teacher's placement for probable success calls for as much supervisory ingenuity as does that teacher's development in the eventual assignment.

Although the backgrounds of the teaching group who move into these hundred-odd openings are not as varied as the school neighborhoods, their wide differences invite consideration by placement and supervisory officials. It is not to be insinuated that successful placement is a simple matter of approximating the school neighborhood and matching it with a teacher of similar home background. On the other hand, it is well known that many a beginning teacher who fails in an initial assignment is saved for the profession by reallocation in a different school neighborhood in the same city.

Once these new teachers have been on the job for a while, supervisors are in a position to note the possible transfers that seem

² For the 1950-53 period.

timely. Furthermore, the supervisors working out of the central school office of a city system are able to detect incompatibility in the case of teacher and principal. In a system with a great many schools it is natural to find variation among administrative personalities and among administrative expectations. For the supervisor to have no part in such readjustment of teachers among schools would be educationally wasteful. Supervision is always challenged to help place a teacher in a position where he can make his greatest contribution.

Supervision is quite commonly called upon to help the teacher with a rural background in a city teaching situation. The typical woman teacher who comes from a rural area or a small town is willing to take a position some distance from home. This may be accounted for in these ways: (1) that the person expected to do so when she began training, because the positions in her home community were so limited in number, (2) that she left home to attend a training institution and thus broke family ties sufficiently to leave home to teach, (3) that she is attracted by better salaries in larger school systems, and (4) that metropolitan life has always attracted rural residents.

Generally speaking, the young man who enters teaching is much more mobile, regardless of his home background. Military service has been a factor during the past fifteen years in encouraging movement among young men. Perhaps the experience of the race bears out this tendency of the male to roam a bit more than the female, to stray from the nest sooner.

The supervisor's role. It is common in large school systems to use those in supervisory capacity in the selection and placement of teachers. It gives the supervisor or principal the advantage of studying the teacher's experience and potentialities prior to the supervisory act. It enhances supervision. It incorporates the supervisor early in the chain of events that eventually must include a judgment of the teacher's effectiveness in the classroom.

Furthermore, most school systems today are eager to co-operate with the teacher-training institutions in assigning student-teachers to their schools. Such trainees often accept their first positions in the same system.³ Those responsible for instructional leadership in

³ See Harold Spears, *Principles of Teaching*, Chapter 1, "From Student to Teacher" (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951), pp. 185-205.

a school system often have the advantage of participating in all of the following steps in the movement of a young teacher from student to experienced teacher:

1. Placement as a student-teacher.
2. Supervision as a student-teacher.
3. Selection as a new teacher.
4. Placement into a specific position, once employed.
5. Supervision as a probationary teacher.
6. Evaluation of teaching effectiveness.

JUDGING THE TEACHER'S WORK

This is a period of jockeying for comfortable relationships in the school family. It is a period in which the school administrator thinks twice before making a policy decision on his own, one in which theory has cautioned those occupying a supervisory position against frank criticism or searching evaluation of a teacher's procedures. In short, it is a period of flight from administrative dictate and supervisory inspection.

But it is also a paradoxical period in supervision. At the same time that supervision shies away from its earlier objective approach with the teacher, it rushes headlong toward the objective absolute in the measurement of all other aspects of the instructional situation. Measurement technicians have pushed their knowledge of the field to a point where they are downright cocky about the techniques and instruments with which they provide supervision for diagnosing a learning situation. For thirty years, the scientific movement in education has been depositing in supervision's drawing accounts this rich accumulation of research.

It is taken for granted today that supervision must make critical evaluations of instruction. The rich fund of educational research that has been accumulated leaves supervision no excuse for taking a pauper's approach to evaluation. Inasmuch as instruction is made up of about nine tenths teacher and one tenth miscellaneous ingredients, it must be honestly asked: Can supervision give critical evaluation of instruction without here and there injecting a bit of reflection upon the teacher?

A chief characteristic of the present period of supervision, as recalled in Chapters 5 and 6, is the pronounced shift in attention from teacher to curriculum. To examine the program rather than the

teacher seems comforting to both supervised and supervisor. One writing on the subject may likewise find himself following this tempting Pied Piper without hesitating to look back to see if anything important was left behind. The question is: Can the critical evaluation upon which instructional success depends be limited to curriculum and method in the abstract? Can it by-pass personalities? It is well to consider for a moment the teachers and their positions.

A personal note. As the writer contemplates and weighs these statements that are running from pencil to paper, he does so under the influence of the day-by-day operation in his own school office. Direct administrative responsibility for more than 90 schools and the education of 49,000 children therein has brought to his attention within the past few weeks such compelling matters about the effectiveness of the teaching effort as these:

Teacher X has been serving the school system for a number of years, and some of the parents of his present class have been meeting in concern about the situation in his classroom. They compare notes and build a case against the teacher's methods. They appeal to the administration for appropriate action.

Teacher Y has taught only three months. He has been unable to win the confidence and the control of his class. In spite of supervisory help this condition persists. The instruction is at a low level, which is appreciated by teacher and parent as well as by supervisor and principal. The teacher threatens to resign.

Teacher Z is a probationary teacher who is discouraged. The principal, concerned about the class, has spent much time with the teacher in the classroom and in outside conferences. The teacher resents this constant attention, but at the same time is not satisfied with her own work.

In school operation, instances of this sort are far from exceptional. One is tempted to refer to the earlier theory of school operation and to dismiss these three cases at this stage as administrative problems, to be so handled. But are they? A question of teaching effectiveness does not resolve itself so readily. Its roots lie in the program of supervision, and to sever those roots would mean to revoke the entire theory of instructional improvement and in-service training.

Is the first case merely a routine administrative matter, calling

for administrative decision by the superintendent? Are the supervisory efforts of principal and supervisor involved? If so, are the judgments of these two supervisory workers involved? In the second case, is it now merely a simple routine matter of the personnel director accepting the teacher's resignation? How about the investment that the state has made in this teacher, the shortage of teachers, and the future of this person who has invested in a profession? In the third case, where there are differences between principal and teacher, what is the responsibility of the central office supervisor who serves this school and this teacher?

The ineffective classroom. The great majority of teachers who leave positions do so because of such natural causes as marriage, change of residence, advancement, health, retirement, family obligations, or just plain change of plans. A small percentage leave because of failure, because of dismissal, or because of their own feelings of inadequacy in the situation.

School administration cannot escape its obligations. And in the area of teacher evaluation they are exceedingly heavy. Teacher tenure laws are rather common throughout the nation. They usually provide legal processes by which a tenure teacher may be dismissed for just cause and also provide for a probationary period, usually of two or three years. By the end of that time it must be determined if the teacher should be retained as a permanent employee. In a sense, the teacher is on probation with himself, determining if this is to be his life work.

Even where no state tenure law exists, teachers are in a sense on trial their first few years. Somebody bears the heavy responsibility of judging the efficiency of teacher effort—of determining if the personnel is capable of delivering on the right of every American child—the right to an education. Responsible school administration respects the fact that to provide a teacher and a classroom is not necessarily to provide this implied education. If the proper conditions for learning are not there, then the child is short-changed. In such instances the production belt on the educational ladder moves him ahead and he cannot reclaim his losses.

To determine the few ineffective classrooms in a school system is not a small supervisory job. It represents a bigger effort, the judgment of all the classrooms. A school administration can to a degree measure its instructional effort as a whole by means of a system-wide

testing program, but this is not facing the issue of an incompetent teacher. Supervision can use all of the preferred procedures for stimulating teacher growth on the job, as reviewed throughout this book; but after all the in-service smoke has cleared away, the issue of an ineffective classroom has to be faced.

Who is to determine the incompetent teacher, the ineffective classroom? Should supervision, after doing all that it can to help, by-pass such classrooms and await the action of administrators or parents? The selection and the dismissal of teachers in a school system is a continuous process, regardless of the extent of the operation at either of these two ends. It is as essential as the selection of textbooks and the indication of those which are considered to be inadequate.

Teachers as judges. Somebody must bear the responsibility for these judgments. Teachers are happy to serve on committees to select new instructional materials. They are always ready to designate those materials that are not bringing educational dividends. They are even happy to sit on interviewing boards to evaluate candidates applying for teaching positions in a school system. They give service here that cannot be otherwise supplied. But they are not inclined toward judging the effectiveness of their neighbor's classroom. They certainly can't be blamed for this. They consider this to be stretching the concept of democratic administration beyond its true limits. They accept the matter as the responsibility of the administrative office, of administrators and supervisors.

In some school systems teachers are represented on a committee that reviews cases of teacher incompetence. Such action is not to be confused as original evaluation of a teacher's work. It is rather the act of judging the evidence that has been assembled over a period of time in the normal course of supervision by those bearing that responsibility. In Glencoe, Illinois, two teachers are members of such a committee that reviews cases of recognized incompetence.⁴

If teachers are taken out of the classroom for a period of time to judge the classroom instruction of other teachers, such action might be announced as democratic participation in supervision and administration. But in the minds of the teachers in general it would be resolved as out and out supervision. The teachers doing the job

⁴Paul J. Misner, "Teaching Rating," *The Nation's Schools*, 48:2 (August, 1951), pp. 23-24.

might still be called teachers, but they would be received by their colleagues as supervisors or administrators.

At times in her concern for her own standards of instruction, a teacher will confide in the principal her misgivings about the instruction that the children received in their former classrooms. But such comments are seldom very personal, and do not represent any desire on the part of the teacher to help assume the responsibility for correcting the situation in such classrooms.

Even in their drive for better salaries and welfare provisions, teachers in their organizations have not recognized the weak or inefficient teacher as a threat to their professional advancement. If ever the teacher movement reaches the place where the major concern is stellar teaching, then such organizations will place pressure upon administration to dispossess weak teachers. But to date, the teacher movement, in its fight for such welfare provisions as salary scales and tenure, has been willing to have weak teachers included along with the efficient. To date, anxiety about the ineffective classroom has remained the responsibility and the concern of administration alone. It is one of those aspects of school work that indicate there'll always be an administrator.

SHOULD THE SUPERVISOR RATE THE TEACHER?

School superintendents find that everybody is willing to get in the act of selecting teachers but nobody is happy about judging them on the job. It is in this respect that one of the great issues of supervision is being raised today: Should supervisors share with line administrators the responsibility of judging teaching efficiency?

Early in the present century the supervisor entered the school scene as the instructional agent of the superintendent. Detained in his office by routine and often unskilled in classroom procedures, the superintendent welcomed the supervisor as an assistant well versed in the art of teaching.

As revealed in Chapter 2, the line-and-staff principle designated the principal as a line officer responsible for the management of his school, including instruction, and the supervisor as a staff officer coming to the school as a special helper with no authority over teacher, principal, or pupil. Nevertheless, it was not uncommon for the superintendent to expect the supervisor to make reports about the conditions in classrooms. Consequently, the evaluation of the

work of teachers was bound to be reflected in such statements. It soon became apparent that it was possible for the supervisor to pass such judgment without violating the line-and-staff principle. It was an instance of the principal sharing a responsibility without relinquishing his authority.

As time went on, supervisors formed professional organizations as they worked together to raise the level of their service. As treated in the previous chapter, organized in-service training among supervisors has been well established for years. In their study they have looked into every aspect of their work. Interestingly enough, one of the issues most frequently treated in their conferences is that of the responsibility for rating teacher performance. It is difficult to find a decision recorded in favor of including the supervisor among the responsible parties.

Supervisors seek freedom from judging teachers. Supervisors, neither as individuals nor as organized groups, have revealed any desire to share the responsibility for judging teachers. As an example, the Texas supervisors in a series of state conferences, expressed this attitude, "Supervisors should not be loaded with the responsibility of rating teachers. Supervisors should serve as resource persons, consultants, and as democratic leaders, rather than as inspectors." And again, "Supervisors are not expected to be teacher-raters, but rather to serve as friends and consultants to teachers." And yet again, "Supervisors should not be held responsible for rating teachers but should develop teachers in self-evaluation as a means of helping them toward self-improvement." Also, "We recognize that the evaluation of teachers is a problem which supervisors must face and that it, therefore, is not to be used as the determining factor in the re-employment of teachers, but rather that it be used primarily for professional improvement through recognition of good teaching."⁵

In another state conference, supervisors expressed the feeling that they could "bring about a happier, closer relationship between the teacher and the supervisor," if "the supervisor is a member of the staff employed as a co-worker to assist in instructional work rather than as a line officer to hire and fire teachers."⁶

⁵ Texas Education Agency, "Texas Supervisors," *Supervisor's Exchange* (June, 1951), Vol. 1, No. 2, pp. 16, 42, 51, 49.

⁶ Texas Education Agency, Texas State Council on Teacher Education, etc., *Work Conference on Supervision*, 1950, p. 13.

This inclination on the part of supervisors to shy away from any assignments in the judgment department is generally supported by the theory of their work as presented in current journals of education. The following two examples can be taken as typical statements:

From being a person in a job created for the purpose of improving the teacher, the consultant or supervisor has become a leader in encouraging and fostering individual school programs and in coordinating effort within the entire school system for the realization of common purposes emerging from the several individual school programs. As a consultant without administrative authority, she has become a much more significant and necessary leader than she ever was in the former phases of supervision.⁷

It is difficult to see how the rating of the teacher by the supervisor can have any place in the relationship here suggested. Indeed, the rating by the supervisor is more likely than not to destroy the happy relationship, unless—and it is a very important unless too—the teacher requests it or at least fully accepts it deep inside himself.⁸

Sharing the duty. Now and then a school system goes on record as assigning supervisors specific responsibilities in the evaluation of teacher effectiveness. For instance, from the Atlantic City schools comes this statement: "It must be recognized that supervisors have the responsibility of recommending dismissal of incompetent teachers. They have also the responsibility for eliminating weaknesses of otherwise effective teachers. In both situations, supervisors must endeavor to maintain good human relations."⁹ To recommend the dismissal of an incompetent teacher means first to judge the teacher as such. Whether done in writing or not, making such a judgment represents rating.

Phoenix, Arizona, reports that supervisors have likewise shared with principals the responsibility for judging teacher competence. Little Rock, Arkansas, reports that the principal of the school and the area supervisors have a part in the rating of teachers. And in evaluating the competence of teachers in Trenton, New Jersey,

⁷ Danylu Belser, "Changing Concepts of School Supervision," *Educational Method*, 22:6 (March, 1943), pp. 259-260.

⁸ S. P. Unzicker, "Ends and Means in Supervision," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 36:7 (November, 1950), p. 390.

⁹ Atlantic City, New Jersey, Public Schools, "Philosophy and Nature of Supervision," *Public School Bulletin*, 27:2 (May, 1951), p. 3.

supervisors are consulted in cases of doubt and when there is a question involving tenure, dismissal, or transfer.¹⁰

Paul Misner has said:

In practice no reputable school system ignores incompetence. Some of the individuals who protest most strongly against the evils of teacher rating are forced occasionally to engage in dismissal practices that make the protestations sound a bit futile and inconsistent.¹¹

The extent of responsibility. Perhaps there are very few school systems in which supervisors are completely free of duties along these lines. It is common for those in supervisory capacity to exchange opinions with administrators regarding strengths and weaknesses in all aspects of the instructional program. This is easily understood. The very existence of the supervisor's position is predicated on the administrator's need of assistance in instructional matters because of (1) his own heavy administrative schedule and (2) the supervisor's ability to do a more expert job. What responsibility for the effectiveness of classroom instruction can supervisors be expected to carry if they are to accept no authority in operation? Even though it does not settle the issue of the supervisor's role in evaluation, it can honestly be said that no one is in a better position to judge instructional effectiveness than is the supervisor.

No doubt supervisors will continue to carry out the responsibilities assigned them by their employers and their chief administrators. Regardless of what they theoretically conceive their duties to be, the supervisory staff in a typical city or county carries great influence in the establishment of administrative opinion regarding the instructional efficiency of the individual teachers.

Supervisors are continually reflecting their grading of teachers whether they rate them systematically or not. For instance, as they select teachers for instructional committees, demonstrations, and other special assignments they invariably reveal their top group of teachers. Who is to say that the failure to make the supervisor's first team may not affect some teachers as deeply as an equivalent supervisory rating on an efficiency blank?

There are other indications of a supervisor's invisible grading system. For instance, many supervisors of experience tend to classify

¹⁰ This information was received through direct correspondence with officials in the school offices of the three cities.

¹¹ Misner, *op. cit.*, p. 23.

some experienced teachers as in a sense beyond supervisory redemption. They indicate this by continuously passing up these classrooms in their supervisory rounds. They may rationalize the practice in the realization that they don't have time to visit all classrooms anyway. Another indication of the tendency of the typical supervisor to judge teachers is in the case of an out and out incompetent teacher. There is no greater consternation shown than that of the supervisor, and no greater force for replacement. The sincere interest of supervisors in instructional efficiency marks them as a group unable to hide their feelings about the good, bad, and indifferent instruction that their background enables them to recognize readily in the schools.

THE SYSTEM OF RATING TEACHERS

The concept of evaluation of teaching does not violate democratic principles of school operation. In fact, it is the absence of a sound program of evaluation that threatens the democratic rights of a teacher. The existence of an equitable program of evaluation can act as the teacher's protection against such administrative uncertainties as autocracy, lethargy, and partiality.

The fact that the problem of judging teaching is extremely difficult is no reason why it should be rationalized out of existence with the comment that such rating is undemocratic. Perhaps it is the provision for systematic rating of teachers that frightens supervisors most in evaluation. The efficiency rating blank has been criticized severely in recent years, and rightly so. Its earlier use was limited to the following three narrow but somewhat compelling purposes:

1. To determine salary increases, in instances where there was no single salary schedule, or where increments depended upon merit rating.
2. To determine which teachers were worthy to be retained and which should be dismissed.
3. To determine teachers worthy of promotion to better positions in the system.

Seeded by this life-and-death charter and nurtured by the application of classroom inspection, the system was bound to produce nothing but bitter fruit. The distaste for rating that grew up reflected its limited purposes and the neglect of wholesome super-

vision by those charged with the responsibility. It is still to be determined if supervision today can overcome the early failure of rating.

Improving rating procedures. There is apparent today a noticeable tendency to upgrade rating practices in a sincere attempt to hold teaching to professional standards. Faced with the challenge to match ever higher salaries with ever higher instructional performance, school administration is not yet willing to throw away the idea of judging teaching effort. And if it is going to judge teaching effort, can it do so without the help of the staff of instructional leaders who know best what classroom effectiveness is?

The idea of a rating system today is based on a foundation much broader and firmer than that represented by the three original purposes. The prevalence of a single salary scale with uniform increments now eliminates the earlier obnoxious practice of rating teachers to determine the bonus winners. Furthermore, the evaluation of the work of probationary teachers is a much more refined process than was the case some years back. Today this procedure is treated as an extension of a selective and upgrading process that begins when candidates apply for a position.

Rating systems are planned co-operatively today to enable a teacher to see his own classroom effectiveness as a help to his inservice development. Furthermore rating is looked upon as only one small aspect of the larger program of instructional evaluation. Standards are set co-operatively. Self-rating is encouraged. One's work is judged against a standard, not against that of another teacher.

The larger the school system and the greater the number of teachers to orientate and supervise, the more likely the school system will be to resort to a uniform evaluation form. The history of school administration shows that with size comes manipulative machinery to supplement the more informal touch. The school system of 50 teachers is not apt to lose personalities in the shuffle, nor is it apt to be pressed to provide a scheme that evaluates teacher performance. But the supervisory management of 1,500 teachers, involving a turnover of 200 or 300 a year, is another matter. Such a situation drives administration to search for evaluative aids. The large system must fight to protect teachers against machinery.

An example of a rating form. Today, it is common for an evalua-

tion blank to represent a constructive statement of teaching standards. For instance, the blank used in the elementary schools of one school system lists such standards under three classifications: personal characteristics, classroom teaching, and out-of-classroom work. The progress of the probationary teacher is evaluated each term for a three-year probationary period. The supervisory staff helps in the readjustment of a teacher from one school to another during this period, to effect major development and contribution. The rating reports are a help in this supervisory operation. Even though approximately 300 new elementary teachers are absorbed into the system each school year, a very small number are lost because of failure on the job. This reflects the careful evaluation of effort and continuous supervisory assistance, as well as good original selection procedures. The standards for teaching performance that compose the teacher-evaluation blank are:

1. *Personal characteristics*

- Adjusts readily to new situations and tasks.
- Appreciates supervision and guidance.
- Co-operates well with the administration.
- Works well with children and commands their respect.
- Maintains pleasant and co-operative relationships with other staff members.
- Works well with, and gains the respect of, parents.
- Shows care in personal appearance.
- Displays emotional stability.
- Displays interest and enthusiasm in teaching.
- Exercises good judgment and diplomacy.
- Speaks and acts in a manner that is highly professional.
- Shows evidence of good health.

2. *Classroom teaching*

- Sees clearly the goal of instruction for the term.
- Plans well for each day's work.
- Reveals a good knowledge of content and methods of the particular class level.
- Reveals a good knowledge of the course of study and teaching materials.
- Has good control of the classroom situation.
- Handles effectively and efficiently the routine of classroom management.
- Respects the worth and dignity of the individual pupil.
- Provides for individual differences among pupils.

Gives careful attention to the physical conditions and appearance of the classroom.

Secures good results in teaching.

Seeks improved ways of teaching.

3. *Out-of-classroom work*

Helps effectively in out-of-class supervision of children, as in corridors, cafeteria, school yard, auditorium.

Meets time schedules promptly, keeps records accurately, and files reports promptly.

Co-operates willingly in extra-class school and community activities.

Recognizes that much of teacher's clerical work must be done during nonteaching time.

The principals of the schools file with the central office a form for each probationary teacher each term of the three-year probationary period. It is asked that these forms be made out co-operatively, thus shifting the emphasis toward the in-service development of the teacher. Supervisors sort out those forms that indicate the need of follow-up work with the teacher. Such cases are already common knowledge because of the intensive work of supervision throughout the year and the close co-operation of supervisor, principal, and teacher in instructional matters.

THE CINCINNATI PLAN

The evaluation of teaching is accepted in the Cincinnati Public Schools as a definite responsibility calling for careful planning. The plan in use is described here as representative of the prevailing attempt to humanize the judgment of teacher effort. The evaluation does not stand alone. Instead, it is buttressed by related supervisory activities leading up to and away from it. Perhaps its most unique feature is the provision for and emphasis upon teacher self-appraisal.

The chain of related activities provided in the plan includes: (1) periodic self-appraisal by the teacher whereby he weighs his own performance in relation to his own concept of satisfactory service, (2) identification of those teachers needing special help, (3) planned supervisory assistance to those teachers, (4) follow-up of such assistance with appraisal by principals and supervisors, and (5) determination of fairest possible treatment of unsatisfactory teaching.

To help secure uniformity in supervisory interpretation of pro-

cedures, there is issued to principals, supervisors, and department heads a bulletin explaining purposes and suggested approach.¹²

The operation of the plan. The four-page evaluation sheet used is called "An Evaluation of Teaching Performance." It is constructed around a list of 44 desirable teaching qualities, which are included later in this discussion. There is no scale by which the teacher is rated against others. Instead, after each quality are two blanks, one for the teacher's use and one for the use of the principal or supervisor.

The plan calls for the teacher to judge his performance first, indicating strongest and weakest characteristics. He may pass by as many of the items as he wishes, as being neither strengths nor weaknesses. Later there is opportunity for the principal to make an appraisal, possibly with the help of the supervisor. He follows a code including (1) satisfactory, (2) needs help, (3) unsatisfactory, and (4) no opportunity to observe performance in this respect.

In general, self-appraisal with the concentration of supervisory attention upon needs is the essence of the system. The supervisory assistance includes such professional safeties as close co-operation between principal and supervisor and ample conferences between the supervisor and the supervised.

The principal and supervisor are warned against standardization in conferences and other supervisory acts. They are encouraged to assume the responsibility for guiding teachers into study groups and other in-service programs. They are likewise encouraged to give ample assistance to teachers by direct classroom visitation and follow-up.¹³

Evaluation intervals. The appraisal form is used for (1) all teachers in their first three years of service in the Cincinnati system, (2) those due for self-appraisal by reason of being in their 7th, 11th, 15th, 19th, 23rd, etc. year of service, (3) those who are identified by supervisors and principals as needing help, (4) those who take an entirely different type of assignment in the system, and (5) those others who desire the stimulation of the self-appraisal.

Self-appraisal by the teacher does not in all instances call for a

¹² Cincinnati Public Schools, *The Revised Appraisal Procedure for the Cincinnati Public Schools* (September, 1952).

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 6.

follow-up evaluation by principal or supervisor. When it does, such appraisal must be discussed with the teacher. At times the use of the blank represents the joint effort of the principal and the teacher sitting down together to check the teaching effort.

The bases of evaluation. The 44 qualities that make up the appraisal plan, as set up in Cincinnati, are divided into three classifications: (1) personal qualities and performance, (2) teaching performance, and (3) professional qualities. It is to be noted that, in the list of these qualities which follows, the statements represent the characteristics of good teaching.

Personal Qualities and Performance

Staff Relationships:

1. Promotes friendly intraschool relationships.
2. Adjusts easily to changes in procedure; does not consider his own program all-important.
3. Carries a fair share of out-of-class responsibilities.
4. Accepts criticism or recognition gracefully.
5. Accepts group decisions without necessarily agreeing.
6. Uses discretion and consideration in speaking of his school or colleagues.
7. Co-operates with immediate administrators and supervisors.

Community Relationships:

8. Works understandingly and co-operatively with parents.
9. Supports and participates in parent-teacher groups.
10. Participates in community activities.
11. Interprets the school's program and policies to the community as occasion permits.

Appearance and Manner:

12. Dresses appropriately; is well-groomed and poised.
13. Speaks clearly, using good English in a well-modulated voice.
14. Shows genuine respect, concern and warmth for others, both child and adult.
15. Attempts to correct personal habits and mannerisms that detract from effective teaching.
16. Is physically able to perform his duties; is not handicapped by too frequent absence or illness.
17. Maintains sound emotional adjustment; is calm and mature in his reactions.

*Teaching Performance**Teaching Techniques:*

18. Helps each child set appropriate goals for himself.
19. Varies method and content to suit individual differences and goals.
20. Directs interesting, varied, and stimulating classes.
21. Practices principles of democratic leadership with children and adults.
22. Plans each day carefully, but is flexible in utilizing immediate educational opportunities.
23. Helps children develop and strengthen their moral and spiritual qualities.

Classroom Environment:

24. Maintains an attractive and healthful classroom.
25. Has work areas arranged for maximum pupil stimulation and accomplishment.
26. Recognizes each child's emotional and social needs.
27. Has genuine concern for all of his children regardless of their cultural, intellectual, or academic status.
28. Is respected by pupils; secures voluntary co-operation; has a minimum of behavior problems.
29. Handles behavior problems individually when possible.

Pupil Growth:

30. Helps children achieve satisfactorily in skill subjects.
31. Helps children evaluate themselves and their growth as a means to further growth.
32. Encourages growth in democratic participation and sharing of responsibilities.
33. Helps students integrate their learning experience into a meaningful pattern.
34. Encourages pupils to make their own judgments according to their various levels of maturity.
35. Helps children acquire good study and work habits.
36. Helps children develop the ability to work profitably in classroom situations.

Professional Qualities

37. Displays the refinement, character, and objectivity expected of the professional person.
38. Is proud of his profession and attempts to promote respect for it.
39. Accepts personal responsibility for compliance with rules and for attention to administrative requests.
40. Does not abuse privileges.

41. Is continuously growing professionally through study, experimentation, and participation in professional activities.
42. Is critical of, and constantly trying to improve, his own work.
43. Initiates or participates fully in activities designed to meet the needs of his particular school.
44. Possesses adequate subject matter background.

The plan just described represents an earnest effort of one school system to establish a system of evaluating teaching devoid of rating. The self-appraisal is intended not to be self-rating "for rating implies comparison with other teachers."¹¹ When the principal or supervisor fills in the sheet, he likewise is expected not to judge the teacher against others. Time will determine whether this ideal can be reached by this approach.

PUPIL-TEACHER EVALUATION

Supervisors may come and go, but pupils will constantly evaluate instruction. This is true of the elementary school child as well as the high school student. This is most natural. The pupils are the ones who actually experience the instruction. They live with it day in and day out and feel its effectiveness or its ineffectiveness. Every teacher is rated by his pupils, and in the long run this is the rating that makes the difference.

A lot has been said and written about the teacher sharing with the pupils the evaluation of their progress in the classroom. This is pedagogically sound. It implies that (1) the teacher shares the planning of instruction, the goals of the work, with the pupils; (2) they know where they are going; and consequently (3) they are in a position to help judge their progress along this road.

This sharing of planning and evaluation that is desirable in the classroom is just as desirable in supervision. Teachers develop through participating with supervisors and administrators in setting the standards for teaching. They can profit by the self-evaluation of their own efforts, once they have established and accepted standards. It is difficult to conceive that this democratic approach to evaluation can take place at one level and not at the other. If it is found in the relationships of teachers and supervisors, it is apt to be apparent in those of teachers and pupils, and vice versa.

School administration must move cautiously in the use of teacher

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 10.

self-evaluation blanks. They should not be used as a means of escape from duty by the administrator or the supervisor. At most such forms would be for the teacher's own use. Their use reflects their title—self-evaluation—and little more. They carry no value for comparative purposes. They may help a supervisor in working with teachers individually, but to file them in a school office might imply that in a sense some teachers would be testifying against themselves.

MATCHING ISSUES AND PRINCIPLES

The responsibility for evaluating teaching effort will continue to be a lively issue in school operation, just as will be the question of including an efficiency blank in the evaluation plan. Here is one of those key operational areas where the functions of administration and supervision overlap and confuse the student of education. It is an area in which some will attempt to avoid the issue by arbitrarily relieving the supervisor from the somewhat unpopular task of appraising teaching.

But regardless of who does it, the evaluation of instructional effort must remain an essential feature of school supervision. Teacher training and teacher selection have not reached the fine state of advancement that would mark evaluation of teaching effort as superfluous. If separated from instructional supervision, such evaluation loses its instructional fragrance and wastes itself upon the desert air of administrative routine. The challenge is to develop a plan that is democratic and effective. The list of pointers that follows represents cautions as well as suggestions in developing an appraisal plan.

1. The appraisal system should reflect the spirit of in-service development and not the detailed inspection and accounting of teaching effort.
2. The evaluation plan should grow out of the normal program of supervision and in-service training and contribute to its effectiveness. It is dangerous to place its responsibility in a personnel office that bears no responsibility for the supervision and improvement of instruction, an office that acts as the door through which teachers enter and leave the school system.
3. The plan should be developed co-operatively by teachers.

supervisors, and administrators. It should be subject to revision whenever improvement seems possible.

4. The thinking in planning should be motivated by the interest in continuous improvement of instruction. It should not be motivated by the fear that there won't be enough recorded evidence against an inefficient teacher who might have to be dropped. Some school systems, especially the very large, will include an evaluation form of some sort in the plan.

5. Any evaluation form that might be provided in the plan is but a small feature of the broader program of in-service growth. The more closely the supervisory officers and the teachers co-operate in an active program of instructional improvement, the more such an efficiency blank will be accepted in stride as a single feature of it. The absence of adequate classroom supervision, curriculum committee work, orientation courses, provision for visiting other classrooms, and similar supervisory contacts with teachers elevates a formal appraisal blank to a grotesque position out of keeping with its original concept. If supervisory visits and so-called supervisory help are limited to the visits for the purpose of rating, then rating becomes a detriment to good school operation.

6. In the larger systems using an appraisal blank, its major use will be found during the early or probationary years of the teacher. Following this period, this close supervisory concern for teacher development gives way to the more voluntary in-service activities of the teacher.

7. No evaluation plan or form used therein is an end in itself. It represents one aspect of a broad supervisory program that begins with sound standards for teaching. If used, the form reflects those standards.

8. Those who carry the responsibility for judging teacher effort must guard against the possibility of an evaluation instrument's forcing them into a position not provided in the original concept. For instance, a standardized sheet must not force conformity in teaching. Furthermore, it must not increase the supervisory control over teachers. These are not its purposes. If these results cannot be avoided, then the provision of such a standardized sheet must be questioned.

9. When teaching qualities are included on a form, their statement should represent a positive approach of good practice. If

self-appraisal records are provided, these are in no way to be used against a teacher.

10. Any appraisal, written or oral, is done as a helpful gesture in professional development on the job. If written, it is not used as a secretive report unknown to the teacher. The most fruitful source of any appraisal, either written or oral, is in a teacher-supervisor conference that reflects a wholesome atmosphere.

11. The point of emphasis in appraisal, which acts as a common ground for the supervisor and the supervised, is the educational welfare of the child. If this evaluation effort stands as an undesirable task to be performed, then there is something wrong with the system in use or the conditions surrounding it. Such a situation calls for co-operative study by administrators, teachers, and supervisors.

12. As to division of responsibility, in keeping with the line-and-staff principle of school operation, the principal and the superintendent or his administrative assistants will bear the major responsibility for handling the case of an inefficient teacher who seems beyond supervisory redemption. However, the general appraisal of teaching effort is a basic feature of the supervisory program. Such evaluation, to be effective, must be a part of this larger supervisory program. Therefore, the service of the supervisory staff is enlisted in the effort. The exact balance of this co-operation of supervisor and principal or administrator is a local matter. If a rating or an efficiency sheet is used in the name of teacher development, then supervisors are naturally enlisted along with principals in its use. If it is recognized as nothing more than an administrative instrument to be used for eliminating unqualified teachers, then it is natural for supervisors to have no part of it.

13. Because an effective evaluation program is but one aspect of a broader teacher development program, it follows that its success depends upon the proper provision of supervision. A few of these necessities that must buttress the appraisal of teacher effort are:

Adequate supervisory personnel.

Frequent classroom visits and conferences.

Transfers of teachers in the interest of the teacher as well as the school department.

Provision for teacher observation of other classrooms.

Appropriate group work with respect to common teaching difficulties, such as rapport with pupils and lesson planning.

14. The appraisal of teaching must avoid classifying a teacher as unsatisfactory for a long period of time. If supervision fails to be effective, the issue needs to be faced. The welfare of children cannot wait.

15. In an ideal school situation, where there is no shortage of properly trained candidates to fill the teaching vacancies each year and where there is ample supervisory personnel, administration would do well to forget any sort of efficiency blanks. It could be assumed that those teachers who enter the classrooms are satisfactory teachers or will become such with proper supervisory help. Those that prove to be unsatisfactory could be handled in a professional manner. The poorer the candidates for positions and the poorer the provision for proper supervision, the more apt administration is to resort to rating sheets in an attempt to protect the educational rights of the children.

There should be no misconceptions about teachers' salaries. High salaries alone will not improve the quality of teaching in the public schools; they merely help. Teachers are not ready-made, to be selected on the open market as conditioned by the amount that the employer can pay. They develop on the job, dependent upon the instructional leadership provided. The idea of supervision is grounded in the theory of continuous development.

Any discussion of the evaluation of teaching may well close with the statement that the test of the idea is in the manipulation of it. There is still a lot to be learned in the proper implementation of the concept. Alert school systems will continue to see the benefits of planned co-operative supervision. A more dilatory administration will continue to wait for disgruntled parent groups to force out incompetent teachers, turning its back knowingly upon ineffective classrooms and basking in the professional sunshine of the classrooms representing stellar teaching performance. The administrator or supervisor who knowingly turns his back upon an incompetent teacher is in a sense a traitor to the principles of American public education. He violates the right of every child to an education.

For Further Consideration

Should teachers serve on committees to judge the degree of competence of other teachers? Should they serve on boards considering the problem of poor teaching? Should supervisors serve on such committees or boards? If greater responsibility for judging ineffective teaching

should fall upon the principal than upon the supervisor, is it conceded accordingly that the principal knows more about classroom instruction than the supervisor? What might be the natural differences between the programs for the evaluation of teaching in the small and the large school systems?

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21

Evaluating Learning

THERE is nothing new about the idea of evaluation of learning. It has been going on for as long as there have been teachers and classrooms. Only the breadth of the concept has changed, bringing with it a renewed search for techniques, instruments, and procedures. To a degree, the term evaluation is a recent refinement of the more limiting concept of testing and measurement.

It implies the incorporation of the human factor rather than the limiting of interpretation to test scores. It embodies a rejection of—an escape from—the harsh limitations of objective testing and measurement. It is much more common today to speak of a program of evaluation than to speak of a testing program. The concept, wherever used, implies honest deliberation and the application of the human touch as well as the scientific instrument. In its broader sense, evaluation calls for the application of understanding to the learning situation.

One must tread warily in trying to mark a preferred trail in school evaluation. No attempt is made in this chapter to give a comprehensive treatment of this important field. It is a specialty within itself, calling for such direction. It demands special departments in the graduate schools as well as special bureaus within the larger school systems. Our concern here is with the work of the ordinary run-of-the-mill supervisor or principal. He cannot be an expert in measurement unless he drops his other duties. However, he does need to be conversant with the field. He needs to comprehend basic principles and to be able to recognize good and poor practices. This chapter constitutes nothing more than an introductory statement. It is an invitation to the instructional leader to move

further into this field of study in accordance with the demands of his local situation.

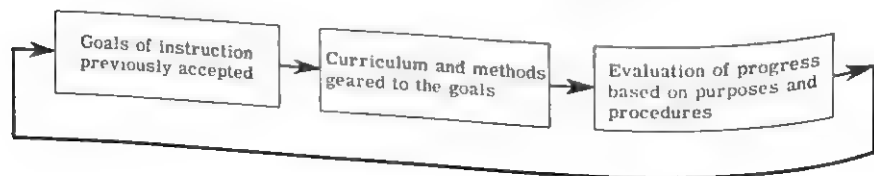
THREE CLOSE RELATIVES

The first law of evaluating pupil progress is to know exactly what you are trying to measure. Evaluation should never be separated from the purposes of instruction. It is an integral part of the curriculum. Nothing stated in this short chapter should indicate that true evaluation comes from the use of a few devices. It depends upon an abundance of evidence.

It can not be said too often that evaluation means nothing in itself. To give a child a standardized arithmetic test will tell nothing about instruction or learning, unless the test was selected to fit the purposes of the programs at hand. A teacher may prepare a test that may not be a valid measure of the pupil's progress in his subject because the test is not representative of the ground covered or the instruction given.

Student X takes a high school course with a teacher who is a poor test maker, while Student Y takes the same course with a teacher who has a good grasp of measurement of pupil progress. Student X comes out with a "C" in the course because the teacher's high expectations were revealed in his tests rather than in his instruction. He was not aware of this discrepancy. Student Y, who actually accomplished about the same in his course as did X in his, comes out with an "A" mark. The one teacher had actually measured for what he had taught, whereas the other had measured for what he would like to have taught.

There is no greater concern of supervision than that of relating measurement with instructional purposes and procedures. Needless to say, objectives need to be in keeping with the maturity of the learner and his ability to learn; and teaching materials and procedures need to be educationally sound and geared to the maturity and ability at hand. This matter of relationships is easily pictured.



The one doing the evaluation must first know exactly what he is trying to measure, and prepare his evaluation procedures accordingly. He may be measuring:

1. The ability to use the keyboard on a typewriter by touch.
2. The ability to express an original thought in writing.
3. The ability to use an index.
4. The ability to read a graph.
5. The ability to co-operate with one's six-year-old companions in a classroom so that the rights of all are respected.
6. The understanding of the reasons for the early settlement of America.
7. The writing of the young child's name, in manuscript form.
8. The ability to spell the words that a second-grade child wants to use in writing a simple sentence.
9. The ability to read a page in the second-grade reader.
10. The ability to make a short oral presentation before the class with the proper composure.
11. The ability to spell the words in the third-grade standardized spelling list for the week.

The supervision of the individual teacher's measurement of pupil progress is a neglected area. Where supervision has been accepted in the development of purposes and classroom methods, it has hardly been thought of in the field of testing. For some reason or other, a teacher's testing program has been considered his own private affair, as has been the rest of his evaluation program, including his distribution of marks. This is especially true in the high school field.

Supervisors can readily detect if teachers know what they are trying to measure. They can help teachers to see that the three close relatives that cannot be separated are the goals of instruction, the means of instruction, and the evaluation of instruction in keeping with the goals and the means.

CHOOSING THE MEANS

The second law of evaluation is that, once you know what you are trying to measure, secure the most promising means of doing the job.

There is a definite reason for the current popularity of the term evaluation. Supervisory emphasis is upon the use of all the valid and

reliable means at the teacher's disposal in judging the child's progress. This begins with determining his potentialities, moves on through the instructional stages of matching goals with learning possibilities and learning procedures with these same possibilities, and ends with judging results.

Evaluation techniques that capitalize upon planned and controlled observation on the part of the teacher have come to the fore in recent years. They include questionnaires, rating scales, diaries, autobiographies, sociograms, checklists, records of progress kept by the pupils, anecdotal records kept by teachers, as well as the standardized and homemade tests prepared by teachers themselves.

These techniques reflect the school's concern for personality and character development as well as for the more academic aspects of schooling. The development of rating scales, sociograms, and similar instruments in the attitude-behavior aspect of education would indicate the teacher's interest in such instruction. Supervision's concern for such techniques must begin with the development of the goals of instruction. A good review of such techniques as the rating scale and the anecdotal record is found in a study recently issued by the California State Department of Education, *Evaluating Pupil Progress*.¹

The significance of matching evaluation technique carefully with what is to be measured can be emphasized by referring by number to some of the twelve goals of instruction listed above. For instance, the ease with which the teacher can go astray in evaluating the pupil's competence in the abilities at which the teaching is aimed is indicated by these examples—references to that list:

2. *The ability to express an original thought in writing.* It is assumed that the evaluation procedure here is the teacher's judgment of the papers turned in by the pupils. The teacher might very easily be disconcerted by grammatical or spelling errors on a paper and permit this to influence her rating of the pupil's achievement. Thus the ability to handle the mechanics of writing rather than creative expression would be evaluated.

3. *The ability to use an index.* To measure the pupil's ability to use an index invites the preparation of problems calling for the

¹ Henry Magnuson and others, California State Department of Education, *Evaluating Pupil Progress*, Bulletin 21:6 (Sacramento: the Department, April, 1952).

pupils to show their ability at using the index. It invites the careful arrangement of the situation so that the teacher can observe and check the progress of the individual pupils. She could very easily be misled into the simple approach of giving a test composed of questions about the procedure instead of setting up the more natural and meaningful practice situations.

5. *The ability to co-operate with one's six-year-old companions in a classroom.* This definitely reflects a broad instructional goal in the field of behavior. Pencil and paper tests, standardized or original, do not meet the need. It calls for a long-period planned observation approach, and invites the development of rating scales in connection. Some of the school systems that have developed and used such scales in connection with teaching co-operation are Santa Barbara County, California; Hibbing, Minnesota; Los Angeles, California; and Springfield, Missouri.²

10. *The ability to make a short oral presentation before the class, with proper composure.* It might be assumed that this is a junior high school English class emphasizing oral expression, and that this is one of a number of specific goals for the term. The question here is the teacher's interpretation of proper composure. If there are two or three teachers handling this course, the principal in his supervision is challenged to lead the group in the development of a rating scale that will in a sense standardize the evaluation.

11. *The ability to spell the words in the third-grade standardized spelling list for the week.* Almost any elementary school teacher maintains a two-way program in spelling instruction. One feature is the development of the ability to spell the words that function in the pupil's written expression—the words he wants to use. The other is the coverage of the weekly spelling lists in the adopted speller. In the third grade in most schools the pupil is shifted from manuscript to cursive writing. This is a skill in itself not easily mastered. If the teacher requires that the child write his weekly spelling words in cursive style, then she is mixing two skills. Consequently, her evaluation of spelling progress is hampered by the pupils' difficulties with cursive writing. The answer would be to permit the individual pupil to use manuscript writing in his spelling if he so desires. The practice in cursive writing could come in other situations.

² Magnuson, *op. cit.*, pp. 97-124.

One thing that has been pointed out in the discussion of the cases above is that whenever there is a course or a classroom in which a teacher is giving marks at the end of a grading period or term, an evaluation program is operating. It may be sound; it may be slipshod; but regardless of what it is, it is there and it needs to be taken just as seriously by supervision as is the city-wide standardized testing program. It should not be left to chance.

Ordinarily there are three features of a testing program operating at the same time: (1) the system-wide standardized program, (2) the standardized tests individual teachers or schools use to supplement it, and (3) the tests teachers prepare themselves.

USING THE RESULTS³

The third law of evaluation is to make broad use of the results of the evaluation once they are available. The criticism that is at times directed at the basic testing schedule represents a fear that evaluation will be limited to such objective instruments. Furthermore, it reflects the misuse—or the lack of use—of the results. There is nothing narrow about the range of sound educational values inherent in a good testing program. Principals, teachers, and supervisors will find the test results of value in:

1. Determining the grade placement or course placement of new pupils.
2. Identifying pupils having specific instructional needs.
3. Revealing the specific weaknesses of each pupil and guiding the teacher in the selection of remedial methods and materials to meet individual needs.
4. Revealing the extent to which pupils are working up to capacity.
5. Indicating the approximate quality of work to be expected of pupils at a given level.
6. Showing the extent to which pupils are accelerated or retarded in relation to their ability.
7. Calling attention to pupils with special abilities so that provision may be made for their development.

³ In developing these following sections, the author secured aid from Lillie Lewin Bowman, director, San Francisco Public Schools, Bureau of Research. He is most grateful for her help.

8. Measuring progress during the term or year to determine the rate of individual growth.
9. Providing a fair and objective measure of pupil achievement.
10. Guiding pupils in the evaluation of their own achievement and in providing motivation for better work.
11. Furnishing an objective basis for guiding pupils in the future educational programs.
12. Advising parents relative to pupils' potentialities and limitations.
13. Judging the effectiveness of particular curriculum or instructional procedures.
14. Helping to clarify instructional objectives.
15. Revealing the over-all instructional effectiveness in the school system.
16. Planning curriculum.
17. Providing background material for public relations use.

THE TEST SCHEDULE

So much has been done, and so much is yet to be done, with standardized testing programs that perhaps it can be said that the use of the results is as broad as the ingenuity of the user. The tests administered annually in a system-wide program usually include the measurement of readiness for instruction, mental maturity or intelligence, and school achievement. It is common practice to give the entering first graders a readiness test, such as the Metropolitan. This test might then be followed by intelligence and achievement tests in alternating grades, such as third, fifth, seventh, ninth, and eleventh.

The first-grade tests. The use of the first-grade Metropolitan Readiness tests is discussed here as a sample of the supervisory approach with the teacher relative to maximum use of the results. The example might well have been taken from any grade level. These tests are administered at the opening of school, to help the teacher predict the child's readiness to participate successfully in first-grade activities requiring verbal and numerical ability. The results help the teacher to group for instruction, to adapt instruction to the group and the individual, and to determine when to begin the more formal work in reading and numbers. The alert teacher also uses the tests at

the end of the year in comparing readiness test results with achievement.

Good supervision does not leave the teacher with the impression that the concept of first-grade readiness is mere identification of the child's responsiveness to fixed first-grade learning situations. Because first-grade expectancy, in terms of learning, varies as widely as the abilities of the pupils, the true concept of readiness includes the teacher's ability to provide learning experiences at the child's level.

There is no greater challenge in the field of education than that met by the first-grade teacher as she receives a new group of children. Her accuracy in an early appraisal of the capacity and promise of these children may be the determining factor in their future school success: mental, emotional, and physical. In this connection, supervision carries the responsibility of helping the teacher to see that these instruments of evaluation indicate not only general readiness, but also linguistic maturity, visual and auditory perception, number knowledge, information about objects, ability to pay attention and follow directions, ability in handling paper and pencil, and ability to sustain interest in looking at pictures and responding to them.

This diagnostic information, whether it reveals intelligence or the nature of the child's experiential background, proves of value to the teacher in planning programs and identifying the children who have specific needs. The test record is only a small part of the total picture. It furnishes significant data regarding the variability of the group for whom instruction must be provided. Although many children will reveal early readiness for formal instruction there will be some of normal intelligence who will not reach readiness until near the end of the first year. The results of the readiness test should be supplemented by the growth record and other observations in determining the quality of performance to be expected. We should expect no more of tests than they can produce. They are to be used with caution at this level.

Test results and reactions to them may lead the teacher to recognize or suspect early in the term mental, physical, and emotional deviations, to be reported to the principal, who in turn will refer the cases to the homes or the proper authority. Pupils often come from homes where defects have been overlooked or neglected. Such

deviations may be in vision, hearing, articulation, muscular control and co-ordination, personal habits and attitudes, emotional control, or mental maturity.

BASIC CONCERNS IN MEASUREMENT

A test score in itself has no significance. It is only when it is interpreted in the light of the underlying factors that it becomes meaningful. Even if a school system maintains a special testing bureau, the teacher's maximum use of evaluation procedures will be realized only if supervisors and principals see these broad implications of testing. The close relationship of evaluation to instructional planning and procedures must be a fetish with supervisors if it is to be so with teachers.

Supervision must work continuously to help teachers interpret test results. Achievement has significance only when interpreted in the light of the ability of the individual. A norm should not be looked upon as a goal to be attained. It is merely an average of a large unselected group. Supervision must discourage any inclination to think of a norm as an expectancy level.

Types of tests. Most school testing schedules include intelligence tests and achievement tests. A fewer number of schools include diagnostic tests and interest or personality inventories. The intelligence test is prognostic because it enables the school to make an estimate of what the pupil might be expected to handle in an academic situation. Achievement test results mean little unless they can be studied in relationship to mental maturity.

Drawing inferences. When a pupil's mental age is approximately the same as his chronological age, he is called "normal mentally." When he has a mental age two or more years below his chronological age, he is conspicuously retarded and deserving of further diagnosis. Among the pupils of normal age and mental ability within the average range will be found extremes in achievement. Although supervision helps teachers to see that each child progresses in accordance with his ability, it encourages attention to factors other than mental ability influencing school success. Expectancy levels reflect not only mental ability but also social and emotional development. Lack of school success among pupils of normal ability is often the result of a physical, social, or emotional irregularity far more serious than the symptom of school failure. When satisfactory adjustments

are made, learning frequently takes place without special methods. Or the lack of school success may reflect poor teaching, inadequate curriculum, or some other instructional condition that constitutes a challenge to supervision.

Children of superior mental ability are found scattered through the classes. Enrichment is a curriculum matter for the attention of teacher, principal, and supervisor. The development of leadership and of responsibility to the community is not to be dated as a Socratic ideal, but it still serves effectively as a present-day objective for children of high promise.

Diagrams of the results. Scatter diagrams, adjustograms, and similar graphic tabulations enable evaluation results to be interpreted readily by the teacher. For instance, one such graph shows the relationship between chronological and mental age. Another providing for mental age and grade placement shows the extent to which pupils are achieving in terms of their mental ability. Such diagrams act as signals for the teacher's attention, but they tell very little concerning the causes of proficiencies and deficiencies. They tell nothing about habits and attitudes that also range from very desirable to undesirable. As was said before, such measurement is but a small part of good teacher evaluation. In the teacher's follow-up lies the true value of such measurement.

Questions commonly raised. It is to be expected that pencil and paper tests, both standardized and teacher-made, will continue in great popularity in school systems. The current attack upon their weaknesses should result in improved methods of handling such programs rather than in a decline in the use of tests. The supervisor who goes in and out of schools can expect to be asked many questions about programs of evaluation. The State Bureau of Education Research of California reports the following as questions that teachers and schools most frequently direct to that office relative to evaluation:

1. Is there a state policy on testing and measurement?
2. Should students be informed of their IQ's? Should parents be told?
3. Shall a record of mental ability, academic achievement, test results, and descriptive evaluation be passed from one teacher to another? From one school to another?
4. Shall teachers and supervisors make identifiable comparisons between classes and schools on standardized tests?
5. Shall the teacher give up the use of essay tests in his classroom?

6. Who shall select the standardized test? When shall the test be selected?
7. Shall the teacher do his own testing?
8. Shall the teacher use mental age as the standard of potentiality by which to judge the results obtained from achievement tests?
9. Teachers remark that their classes are doing good work. Occasionally standardized tests do not seem to indicate this level of achievement. What about it?
10. Do teachers need special training in all kinds of testing?
11. Do paper and pencil tests reveal attitudes accurately?
12. How shall progress or growth be reported to the child's parents?
13. When and how often should the parent-teacher conferences be held?
14. Shall the reporting to parents of subject matter achievement be furnished in terms of an ability standard?
15. Should personality tests be used by teachers?
16. When will the teacher get time to keep all evaluation records?
17. Should a child who shows outstanding achievement on a battery of tests be given a double promotion? ⁴

A hundred other questions about evaluation, equally challenging, could have been asked and also discussed by that Bureau. For the field of evaluation is fully as extensive as the field of instructional methods. The good teacher judges his effort step by step.

SUPERVISION'S SERVICES TO TESTING

In respect to classroom measurement, supervision has three services to perform: (1) to help in the selection of those instruments most likely to reveal the information helpful to teachers in attaining the instructional goals at hand, (2) to see that the tests are properly administered, and (3) to encourage the proper use of the information gained. The degree of participation of a supervisor or a principal in the first two of these will be lightened by the existence of a testing or research office in the school system. The third, assistance in the proper use of the test results, is a service that will not come to teachers unless supervisors and principals bring it to their door. Furthermore, testing gives supervisors insight into instructional matters.

Needless to say, the giving of tests far exceeds the using of tests in American schools. It is in the latter area that supervision is challenged to make its contribution, to overcome the lag. Standardized

⁴ Magnuson, *op. cit.*, pp. 156-162.

tests reveal abilities, possibilities, and limitations. They are of great help to a teacher in becoming orientated to a new pupil or a new group of pupils, provided the teacher realizes the value of such data. A teacher, under proper direction, may check the effectiveness of aspects of his own instruction by means of test results.

The alert supervisor or principal is well versed in the standardized testing programs that are operating in the schools in which he is working. Consequently, he is in a position to relate available test data to instructional situations. For instance, he can encourage the teacher to do the same by using such direct approaches as these:

Did the test results help you in grouping these children for reading?

Is John's difficulty in arithmetic the result of inability or is it failure to work up to capacity?

Do you think that the section on science in the test is pitched at a level above our curriculum offering?

The supervisor is in a position to combat the defeatist attitude that a low test score may encourage a teacher to accept in the case of a pupil. The constructive use of the results of a testing program is its justification. The supervisor carries the responsibility of fighting the misuse of test results, just as he carries the responsibility of encouraging their maximum use.

Through proper supervision, standardized tests can perform a real service, but only insofar as they are aids to the teacher's own instructional efforts. They should never be permitted to determine the goals of instruction. Science in education has in a sense at times detracted from such instructional goals as co-operative effort and the scientific method, simply because tests have not been produced to measure such outcomes of instruction. The use of a system-wide standardized testing program should not skew supervisory interest to those aspects of the instructional program that are thus measured.

TEACHER-MADE TESTS

A test tests the teacher as well as the pupil; secondary school supervisors have learned that an otherwise good teacher may be a poor test maker. He may waste the effects of his good instruction for the marking period by judging his pupils by a test that doesn't measure the course covered. Supervision at the junior and senior

high school level should be as much interested in the home-made tests as in the factory-made ones.

To be valid a test must measure the thing that was purported to be measured; that is, the content of a test must cover the content of the course or that portion of it on which the pupil is being judged. Because of this, there is the possibility of achieving in teacher-made tests a higher validity than in standardized tests, provided the teacher is skillful enough in constructing his instrument.

Weaknesses of tests. Good supervision is aware of the common weaknesses of teachers' testing procedures. Perhaps the most common is to cover only a limited portion of the instruction for the period, thus injecting the chance factor to the extent that the results are not valid. For instance, an essay test of four questions in a history course may cover only four of twenty or thirty equally significant phases of the course. Maybe greater validity might have been achieved by using an objective recognition-type test.

A teacher needs to know first exactly what he is attempting to measure and to make out his test accordingly. If it is reasoning he is measuring, he will choose an aspect of the course commonly taught to all and use perhaps an essay approach. If it is recall he is interested in, then the completion-form test invites his consideration. There are a number of common approaches for simple recall.

A master test-maker among teachers can measure reasoning by use of such tests as the multiple-choice and the matching. But ordinarily these are more effectively used for measuring recognition or recall. Completion tests have been used to great advantage in measuring understanding.

Supervision needs to guard against the weaknesses that arise with so-called objective tests, such as the true-false and the multiple-choice. Because they are easy to construct, they may be handled with too little consideration of their shortcomings. For instance, false statements have been accused of teaching misunderstanding. If they are too obviously false, they also disqualify themselves.

Supervisors and principals have at hand many studies in the field of teacher-made tests. Their common knowledge called for in their supervisory position should include: (1) the types of tests and the best uses of each, (2) the common errors made by teachers in test construction, and (3) the relative values of teacher-made tests and standardized tests in various teaching situations. In other words, any

good supervisor needs a general background in evaluation procedures as well as in the more direct instructional procedures. He need not be a specialist, but rather a general practitioner who can direct the teacher to further study.

There is no reason to labor the point that an adequate program of supervision includes an adequate evaluation of instruction. Instruction is a broad term including teacher effort and pupil effort and reflecting supervisory effort. As the progress of a pupil is measured, in a sense a teacher may evaluate his own efforts. The results reflect upon the supervisory program or the lack of one. The adequacy or the inadequacy of instructional supplies may be revealed through evaluation. And so may administrative expediency in the form of crowded classes. It is no easy matter to separate these various influences that intertwine and play their part in the progress of the child. Many school systems have met the problem of limited facilities with double sessions. This is the type practice that invites evaluation. To what degree is there a loss in learning due to the child's spending only half a day in school?

In short, it can be said that with supervision rests the responsibility of helping teachers to measure their work as well as that of their pupils. Supervision cannot await the development of the perfect instrument. It must encourage the proper use of those available. And above all, it must realize that any testing program is a cold, impersonal, useless thing in itself; it is the use of the results that counts.

For Further Consideration

Is there a basic difference between the evaluation of instruction and the measurement of learning? How might supervisory help be extended to teachers in making use of the results of their evaluation procedures? In which areas of the elementary field are measurement instruments most reliable and helpful? In which high school subjects are standardized tests most reliable? In setting up a system-wide evaluation program, how can administration reconcile the fact that valid instruments are not available in all the areas of instruction?

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22

Closing the Account

LIFE is a classic struggle between good and evil. And with a bit of a stretch of the imagination it can be said that these two forces likewise dominate the field of pedagogy. Since the first essay about school procedure was published, the good and the bad have chased each other across the pages of our professional literature. In and out of the accounts of administration, classroom instruction, and supervision they have struggled. In the story the good always wins out over his evil adversary. And as the student of education finishes reading another account, he sighs and hopes that his hero will likewise win over all odds in actual school operation.

In their school setting there is nothing particularly unique about these two competing characters. They reflect in great part the forces of good and bad as the American sees them in his out-of-school life. The chief characteristic of the hero is his democratic nature, and in turn the villain is easily recognized by his authoritarian tendencies. One is the kindly fellow who places service before self and takes into consideration the ideas and the natures of those with whom he associates; the other is a bully with ulterior motives, who cracks the whip and ignores personalities as he drives toward his goals.

The story of the good and the bad of supervision becomes an elaboration of these general distinctions. So it has been in this account, with one exception. To good practice and bad practice was added a third character, *common practice*. The inclusion throughout the book of actual examples of supervision was an attempt to enable the reader to judge the possibilities of supervision for himself. The theory of the subject can be limited to the good and the bad,

but the actual practice of supervision must take into consideration the conditions in the school situation in question. We must be hesitant to say what should and what should not be until it is better known what is and what can be. Supervision is conditioned in each case by the factors of the local setting. What is good supervision in one setting may actually be bad in another.

TEACHERS JUDGE SUPERVISION

Paramount in any school setting is the teacher. Perhaps the value of a supervisory program can best be measured by the affection and respect shown for it by the teachers. It may meet all the theoretical requirements for a good program; but if it is not accepted by those whom it is to serve, there is something wrong with it. This is not to say that supervision must become a spiritless function, in which the supervisor must first get the classroom go-ahead signal before inaugurating any activity of the program.

The question of the limit of the responsibility of supervision is one that intrigues many who work at the graduate level. That the supervisor need be no Pollyanna is expressed in this statement by Bartky:

Lest there be any doubt about my crime when I am burned at the stake by the "superdemocratic curriculum construction" priests, I elaborate: I am sincerely convinced that under certain conditions, when change is impossible because of reactionary attitudes of teachers or when teachers are young and inexperienced, it is perfectly proper for one who knows what he is doing to impose a curriculum upon them.¹

So much caution has been given the supervisor of late, it is no wonder that supervisory effort is at times lost in generalities. This tendency to evade the do's and don't's of classroom instruction represents an attempt by the supervisor to avoid anything that would seem to denote the voice of authority. For instance, the supervisor who would dare to pass judgment on the teaching procedures he observes has been cautioned by some authorities first to examine himself to determine why he would approve or question the practices in question. He has been asked to search his own soul to determine why he felt as he did about the procedures he observed.

¹ John Bartky, "Helping Teachers Teach," *School and Society*, 66:1709 (September 27, 1947), p. 242.

TABLE 11

TEACHER APPRAISAL OF COMMON SUPERVISORY PRACTICES

Representing the opinion of 200 New York City elementary teachers, in eight schools^a

	<i>Very Helpful</i>	<i>Of little Help</i>	<i>No Help</i>	<i>Detri- mental</i>	<i>No Contact</i>
1. Demonstration lessons.....	74%	12%	1%	0%	13%
2. Supervisor discusses routines at teachers' meeting.....	39	46	11	0	3
3. Individual conference with supervisor.....	67	22	3	0	8
4. Grade conference to discuss common problems.....	73	19	5	0	3
5. Professional library in school.....	86	10	0	0	4
6. Daily 2-second visit by supervisor.....	11	31	31	10	17
7. In-service courses or workshops.....	63	25	4	0	8
8. Commendation for outstanding service to Board.....	32	25	20	10	13
9. Intervisitation of teachers.....	67	24	5	0	4
10. Educational lecture at school by outside speaker.....	49	25	4	1	21
11. Teachers' panel discussion.....	42	38	11	0	9
12. Directed reading.....	42	36	13	1	8
13. Teacher-conducted conference after school.....	30	39	12	3	16
14. Visiting an outstanding school.....	73	16	4	0	7
15. Daily morning bulletin.....	25	31	16	2	26
16. Impromptu formal classroom supervision.....	8	39	29	20	4
17. Formal classroom supervision upon call.....	24	37	20	7	12
18. Participation in course-of-study making.....	56	20	6	0	18
19. Participation in formulating school policies.....	70	14	3	0	13
20. Teachers' interest committee in school.....	51	20	4	1	24
21. Comprehensive testing program with analysis.....	39	33	13	6	9
22. After-school open discussion of topic of interest.....	65	19	7	1	8
23. Supervisor acts as a consultant or technical adviser.....	81	11	3	0	5
24. Rigid adherence of teacher to fixed daily program.....	3	4	18	65	10
25. Supervisor stays away from classroom as much as possible.....	30	15	24	15	16

^a *Ibid.*, p. 607.

The evaluation of teaching has rebounded, with the supervisor and his supervision now being critically examined.

Evaluation seems to have a two-way action. Just as the supervisor judges the instructional efforts of the teacher, likewise the teacher is judging the supervisory efforts of the supervisor. It is now not uncommon to find such teachers' surveys in the educational journals. The few excerpts that follow are taken from such articles.

A New York study. Antell studied the reactions of 200 New York City elementary teachers to common supervisory practices (Table 11).³ More than 60 per cent of all teachers who were questioned wanted these things:

1. A professional library.
2. A supervisor who acts as a consultant or technical adviser.
3. Demonstration lessons.
4. Grade conferences to discuss common problems.
5. Visits to outstanding schools.
6. Participation in the formulation of the school policies.
7. Individual conferences with the supervisor.
8. Intervisitation of teachers.
9. After-school conferences for open discussion of problems.
10. In-service courses and workshops.

He summarizes his study with the statement that the teachers favored those supervisory practices which gave them widest latitude to participate in curriculum improvement, which made available to them sources of pertinent information, and which gave them genuine assistance. They wanted help in everyday tasks, and resented inspectional supervision and all forms of imposition.

An Indiana study. An even more extensive attempt to determine the kind of supervision teachers want and the kind they receive is reported by Bail.⁴ In the survey of opinion, there were interviewed 460 school people: 219 secondary school teachers, 205 elementary teachers, 34 principals, and two superintendents. Inasmuch as the survey was made on the Butler University campus during a summer school session, it can be assumed that the supervisory situation under consideration was in large part that found "on the banks of the Wabash." The study is summarized in Tables 12 and 13.

³ Henry Antell, "Teachers Appraise Supervision," *Journal of Educational Research*, 38:8 (April, 1945), pp. 606-611.

⁴ P. M. Bail, "Do Teachers Receive the Kind of Supervision They Desire?" *Journal of Educational Research*, 40:9 (May, 1947), pp. 713-716.

supervisor of worth can see what it is that teachers want. For instance:

School teachers appreciate organization and want it in the programs of their supervisory officers as well as in their own classroom management.

They want to know where their principals and supervisors are headed.

They want time to do the extra things that are inaugurated as in-service or supervisory activities.

They want to decide for themselves if they are to participate in committees, workshops, or similar programs. The honor of being appointed may be offset by the failure to be taken into the planning.

They want their time in meetings, courses, and similar in-service activities to count for something, not to be wasted. And they want the right to determine for themselves what is profitable and what is waste of effort and time.

They want a bit of privacy in their own teaching. The fanning in and out of a classroom by an oversolicitous supervisor may become more troublesome to a weak teacher than his own instructional shortcomings. And the mounting traffic in and out of the classroom of an outstanding teacher may at times lead the latter to wish for the good old days when he did a poorer job but had privacy in doing it.

They want their administrators and supervisors to appreciate the limiting conditions under which they work. They don't expect miracles if their classes have to be oversize or their instructional materials limited. They just want the administrators and the supervisors to show a knowledge of the conditions. It isn't sympathy they want, but understanding.

This whole discussion of the reception of supervision by the teacher might be summed up with one statement: *Supervision must satisfy the teacher as well as the supervisor.* Supervisors can spend too much time listening to themselves instead of to teachers. They can spend too much time talking supervision instead of doing supervision. It is well to remember that the steam that blows the whistle doesn't turn the machine.

From the day the average teacher takes his position in the classroom he is hemmed in by public concepts, traditional practices, state

and local requirements, and the physical limitations of the setting. Supervision should see this. And in such understanding it can take one of two approaches: it can work to adjust the teacher to the situation or it can work to release the teacher's energies and ingenuity from unreasonable shackles. Supervision should not act as a police officer aligned on the side of formality and precept. When supervision becomes intervention, it disqualifies itself as instructional service.

Organization and control in supervision or administration are balanced with freedom and initiative. When organization and control become too restrictive—when they become ends rather than means—then in time they are invariably sacrificed for a more flexible system of organization that can again give freedom and initiative their just place in school operation. Teachers can be looked upon as a wholesome governor on the school machine. They eventually attack the rigid control that creeps into a single school or a school system at large. Supervision must be meaningful rather than mechanical. In the process there is a definite difference between speaking *at* a teacher and speaking *to* a teacher. In the little diagram that follows are reviewed the natural questions of an average teacher who is susceptible to development.

THREE NATURAL QUESTIONS OF A TEACHER

1. What am I trying to do?

3. How am I doing?

2. Why am I trying to do it?

This is the area of the curriculum, of planning, and of the methods of teaching.

This is the area of evaluation, of judging teaching accomplishment.

Supervision is concerned with helping teachers with all three of these questions. The more help the teacher receives with 1 and 2, the more the teacher can answer 3 by himself. The less assistance given the teacher with 1 and 2, the more likely supervision will be to revert to rating scales and inspection in the case of 3.

PROPOSED SUPERVISORY POLICIES AND PROCEDURES

The theory of school supervision is no longer limited to the graduate course or the state or national conference. City and county school systems assemble teachers, administrators, and supervisors to consider the ways and means of supervision. It is not uncommon for a school system to issue statements dealing with policy and practice. This was recently done in the Oakland, California, public schools. The statement of the committee, which follows, was circulated under the title *Proposed Supervisory Policies and Practices—Elementary Schools*.^a

The Oakland Statement:

Since instructional leadership and coordination functions are the responsibility of the school principal, and since the major responsibility for plans and programs for in-service education and school improvement now resides in the individual school, it is proposed that:

1. Supervisory procedures and practices on the part of principals and central office personnel will of necessity vary from school to school.
2. The central office supervisory staff will be on call to serve as consultants and to assist the individual schools or groups of schools, with in-service and other school improvement activities.
3. The individual schools will request assistance, at any time, directly from the individual supervisor in person, in writing, or by telephone.
4. The members of the central office supervisory staff will make their own individual schedules in response to requests for assistance. Periodically, each central office supervisor will submit a record of school visits to the assistant superintendent in charge of elementary schools. The practice of publishing the complete schedule of supervisors for a period of a month will be discontinued.
5. The plans for in-service activities submitted by several of the schools will be referred to the general supervisor involved in each case for follow-up with the principal.
6. More intensive and concentrated effort in larger blocks of time in a specific situation should be made possible for central office supervisory personnel.
7. It is desirable to develop more and more work which is accomplished by teams of central office supervisory personnel.
8. The problems of identifying the real concerns and needs of personnel are basic in the supervisory program—ways and means should be studied and developed carefully over a long period of time.

^a Supplied by Charles Grover, Assistant Superintendent, Oakland public schools.

9. The development of readiness for assistance on the part of schools and personnel is an important part of the supervisory program. The problems of how to develop readiness should be explored over a long period of time.

10. Plans for evaluating supervisory policies and procedures should be developed and carried out.

11. Such a statement as this, of supervisory policies and procedures, should be distributed to all personnel involved.

12. It is understood that the practice of central office supervisors visiting new teachers at the beginning of a term is desirable and will be continued.

As indicated in these twelve points, Oakland does not profess to have achieved its final goal in instructional leadership. The same spirit of continuous progress is held for supervision as is held for the child's learning or the teacher's instruction. Differences in situations are readily recognized. Helpfulness dominates the entire statement of policy. Unsolved problems are admitted. But the statement bears a true note of hopefulness.

THE LIMITS OF SUPERVISION

A major concern, as has been revealed repeatedly throughout this account, is the limits of supervision. To paraphrase Caesar, all supervision is divided into three parts: (1) curriculum development and the selection of instructional materials, (2) the in-service training of the staff, and (3) the more direct supervisory service to the individual teacher, including among other things conferences and classroom supervision.

But the supervision of instruction must have some reasonable limits. It cannot be all things to all school people. The definition of the concept should rightfully be broad, but the definition of the service must provide limits in the responsibility for carrying out the function. Any school system must to a degree limit the definition of this service and in turn assign definite responsibilities. Otherwise, supervision loses any distinction of its own and wastes its identity in the maze of administrative and instructional activities.

As has been indicated throughout this book, supervision is commonly accepted as those activities that are directed toward the improvement of the teaching-learning situation. The broad interpretation of this definition would include all professional personnel in the supervisory enterprise. For instance, in improving the learn-

ing-teaching situation, who does more than the teacher? But to say that the teacher engages in the supervision of instruction is to lose the identity of this important school function in the teaching process itself.

The supervisor may capitalize upon the participatory process in curriculum development, or upon any other phase of instructional planning, but the teacher's participation is not supervision. The teacher teaches, the supervisor supervises, and they co-operate democratically in instructional study programs. But the teacher doesn't carry the responsibility to supervise any more than the supervisor carries the responsibility to teach. In our eagerness to advance democratic school operation, there need be no reason to tear out all distinctions of functions and responsibilities.

The demands made upon supervisors by curriculum planning will not diminish. It is true that some school systems will have special curriculum departments. But even in these schools, the supervisor, though not the expert, is bound to act as midwife in the birth of new instructional programs.

The responsibility beyond. In reviewing the case of supervision, as reported in the chapters just covered, it might be said that about nine tenths of the service represents more or less direct help to teachers. The other one tenth represents an obligation to teaching in general. This smaller portion deserves further consideration before we close the account.

American public education is grounded upon the principle of lay responsibility. In keeping with this, school administration must not only interpret the school's accomplishments to the public; it must give an accounting. This responsibility is shared with supervision, because the latter shares the obligation to see that classrooms are properly taught. It is here that supervision makes its contribution to teaching in general, over and beyond the direct service to teachers.

The over-all or ultimate responsibility of supervision will remain one of the pressing issues of school administration. An Atlantic City public schools manual defining the position of supervision includes this statement:

It can hardly be questioned that the supervisor needs some measure of authority. His authority should be commensurate with his responsibility. If the responsibility is to improve instruction, then the supervisor should have the authority to improve instruction. But what is the basis

of authority? The answer is that true authority in the field of supervision lies not only in knowing what good procedures are, but in knowing how to get teachers to see for themselves, to understand and to use good procedures in teaching. In short, true authority in supervision grows out of the ability to cause teachers of their own volition and initiative to become better teachers.⁹

But the inefficient classroom that does not respond of its own volition and initiative to these general efforts of supervision cannot be dismissed from mind by the supervisor. He gives his nine-tenths service to raising the level of instruction in the schools with which he works. In doing so he contributes a service beyond these classrooms, a service to teaching in general. And should the shortages of instruction be beyond redemption in this or that spot, he is professionally obligated to use his influence to do something about it. Conscientious supervisors do so.

If supervisors and supervision are at times too stiff, they have come by it naturally. As was treated in the beginning chapters, the original supervisory program was cast by administration in a rather rigid mold. For instance, the rules of the San Francisco Board of Education in 1910 made these demands upon the supervisory personnel:

Supervisors shall have a general supervision of the instruction in their respective departments. They shall give instruction to teachers by lectures, by model or illustrative teaching, by general or personnel suggestion and criticism. They shall visit the schools systematically, and shall report to the principals, who shall make a record of the same. They shall report to the principal upon the character of the instruction given in their respective departments, with criticisms and suggestions as exigencies may require. They shall report to the Board and to the Superintendent upon the general condition of the schools.

(a) Supervisors and their assistants shall send to the office of the Board at the close of the last day of each month a report embodying a record of their attendance, and number and duration of lessons given during the current month, giving the exact time and date and the reasons for absence, if any. The report is to be made on a special blank provided for the purpose.

(b) Supervisors and assistants failing to present such report on the last school day of each calendar month shall forfeit five dollars of their salary. Attention is called to the salary schedule in force providing deduction from salary for absence.

⁹ Atlantic City Public Schools, *Philosophy and Nature of Supervision* (May, 1951), p. 4.

(c) Supervisors and their assistants shall furnish to the Board and to the Superintendent on Monday of each week a program of proposed school visitations for that week.¹⁰

As Boards of Education down through the century have dropped their earlier machinelike conception of supervisors, so in turn supervisors have gradually moved from the mechanical operation of their job over to the human approach.

PRESERVING THE AMERICAN HERITAGE

In this brief account there has been little said about the purposes of American education. Taken somewhat for granted as concern for the individual learner and for the welfare of our American way of life, their elaboration and clarification in the local school setting is essential. As supervisors, teachers, school administrators, and laymen continue to work with the problems of school operation, they must recall that all public schools have their foundation firmly rooted in the American heritage, the preservation of which in the final analysis is the principal motive of all supervisory effort.

The patriotic sensitivity of the teaching profession is not to be surpassed by other groups. Our literature abounds with the dedication of the public school's efforts to the welfare of our nation. The accomplishments of our nation attest to those efforts. The Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education, of the National Education Association, has summarized this relationship of school and heritage in this statement:

America stands before the world dedicated to the proposition that all men are free and equal. Each citizen has the privilege, and the obligation of sharing this inspiration with others. The educational profession has the moral obligation of helping young people to grow steadily in their ability to understand the democratic aspiration and to contribute to its enrichment.¹¹

THE EDUCATIONAL RIGHTS OF THE CHILD

In keeping with the American way of life, the rights of the individual child are sacred in the principles of public education. In

¹⁰ *Rules and Regulations of the Board of Education*, San Francisco Public Schools, Dec. 28, 1910, Sections 94 and 95.

¹¹ *The Public Schools and the American Heritage* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, Committee for the Defense of Democracy through Education).

the final analysis, supervision works for the child rather than for the teacher. In the teaching process the teacher is the key figure. In the supervisory process the teacher is the middleman through whom the supervisor works in distributing his educational contribution to the child. Supervision has an obligation to teaching, which in turn has an obligation to the child. This obligation is to see that his educational rights are respected—to see that he has the kind of a school experience that helps him:

To learn those abilities and skills commonly needed by a person in his personal achievement and social intercourse.

To develop wholesome curiosity, imagination, and initiative.

To seek knowledge and understanding as his best means of arriving at the truth.

To know how to approach and carry through a piece of work commensurate with his maturity level.

To appreciate wholesome endeavors and to recognize effort that is fruitless or wasteful.

To have trust in himself and to develop pride in his accomplishments.

To know how to play as well as how to work, and to be happy in both.

To be himself and to express himself as best he can.

To demonstrate integrity and have the courage to stand by his convictions.

To be reverent and humble, to have faith in his God, and to develop moral and spiritual values.

To have trust in others and to be unprejudiced in his acceptance of them.

To appreciate wholesome companions and friends.

To develop the courtesies considered desirable and effective in social behavior.

To respect the rights of others and to co-operate for the common good.

To respect his own rights and to accept his responsibilities.

To be democratic.

To preserve his physical health and his mental and emotional stability.

OBJECTIVES OF CITIZENSHIP

This list of educational and growth ideals leaves no sense of finality or completion. It is a sampling of our hopes for the human race, with full appreciation that all of the job encompassed will not be done by the school alone. For instance, the division between school and home and church of the responsibility for moral and spiritual values will never be completely settled. Of more importance is the general acceptance by the three parties of the joint responsibility for such worthy objectives as those stated in the preceding list.

State and local school bulletins and courses of study all over the country indicate that teachers and instructional leaders continue the search for the true purposes of education, for the framework that guides instructional practice in the classroom. For instance, the objectives of citizenship challenge study groups year after year. Teachers and graduate students appreciate that such objectives must be broad enough to be applicable to the kindergarten child as well as to the high school student. The lists that follow are included as a sample of this work of teacher study groups.¹²

Objectives of Civic Responsibility

In the acceptance of his civic responsibilities, the good citizen

1. recognizes that democracy is a way of living,
2. works to uphold America's democratic ideals,
3. recognizes the contributions made to America's growth and development,
4. works with others to meet basic human needs,
5. realizes his rights and assumes his responsibilities in a democracy,
6. understands the need for laws and shows respect for authority,
7. recognizes the rule of the majority and has respect for the rights of the minorities,
8. recognizes the need for leading as well as following,
9. works toward the wise use of human and natural resources,
10. recognizes that nations as well as individuals depend on one another, and
11. works toward the development of peaceful international relations.

¹² *Building for Democracy*, San Francisco: Elementary School Department, San Francisco Public Schools, 1950, pp. 3-4.

Objectives of Social Competence

In achieving social competence, the good citizen

1. has respect for himself and for others,
2. shows individual concern for group welfare,
3. practices the common courtesies of desirable social behavior,
4. observes the rules of fair play and good sportsmanship,
5. uses problem-solving techniques for individual or group action,
6. cooperates with others on matters of general concern,
7. recognizes the likeness as well as the differences that exist among various peoples, and
8. believes that "we, the people" have the intelligence to solve social problems.

Objectives of Self Realization

In striving toward his own maximum achievement, the good citizen

1. realizes that every individual has the obligation as well as the right to develop to his highest possible level,
2. understands that his own physical and mental health affect others,
3. acquires habits of safety to protect himself and others,
4. works toward self-discipline through self-evaluation,
5. develops a sound code of high moral values,
6. masters the tools of learning as necessary skills in a democracy,
7. works toward the development of personal economic efficiency,
8. recognizes that art, music, and literature enrich his life,
9. is aware of the beauty in his daily surroundings, and
10. develops worthwhile leisure-time activities.

And in all this business of schooling, regardless of the objectives, the pupil has a right to make honest mistakes in his efforts. He has the right to patient, sympathetic, and competent teaching. Supervision is challenged to work for the type of school program that frees the ingenuity and the potential of each child who passes through the school on his way down life's intriguing yet demanding road. America's greatness is not the result of thoughtless lock-step procedures. Instead, it reflects the respect for ideas.

The nature of a classroom invites conformity, but the nature of the child invites exploration. Supervision must help teachers to see the extent to which the school is dominated by forces actually fearful of releasing the true exploratory nature of the child. The exploratory approach has its place in the American classroom just as it has in the research laboratory and the business office.

pathetic leadership were not at the top of the list. More frequently mentioned were the more down-to-earth, everyday irritations pertaining to the physical provisions for education.¹⁵ The replies listed in order of frequency are:

Lack of room	46
Lack of materials and supplies	40
Lack of time	30
No movable furniture	30
Inadequate knowledge—afraid of results	29
Lack of supplementary books	29
Lack of co-operation of parents	20
No co-operation from other teachers	19
Traditional set-up in grades before and after	18
Lack of ability to evaluate the work	15
Fear of not covering subject matter	14
Children not knowing how to look up reference material	10
Lack of free expression among pupils	9
Wanting to do too much for pupils	6
Lack of group leaders	2
Hindrance in departmental work	2
Unsympathetic school board	2
Unsympathetic superintendent	2

The vast and increasing complexity of the instructional program makes supervision more complex and more demanding. Research has been a boon to instruction, but it has continued to feed the instructional field at such a rate that supervision finds most difficult the job of unloading the findings and moving them on into the classrooms.

Looking back over the chapters of this account, the absence of curriculum direction is apparent. This was to be expected in a story of supervision, but the author nevertheless misses the more detailed treatment. The curriculum awaits instructional leadership. Instructional leadership at the elementary level has much to offer the secondary school, if the latter institution would put aside its pride and be but humble enough to open the door.

NATURE AND NURTURE

The American school has never quite lived up to the imagination of its planners. That the ideal in supervision has not yet been reached

¹⁵ Maine State Department of Education, *A Forward Step* (Augusta: the Department, 1948), p. 115.

is a wholesome situation. It is well that the blueprints keep the builders working for the school just beyond their reach. The position of supervisor or instructional leader is here to stay. It has established itself in the school budget as a necessity to good education.

As to his approach, a supervisor can never take his work too seriously, as long as he doesn't take himself too seriously. He must be profoundly optimistic about the possibilities of growth in people. That individuals can improve their situations by improving themselves is the faith of the teaching profession. No act of a supervisor has any importance in and of itself. Its test lies in its contribution to this growth of people.

And who will supervise? As the job is laid out in all its complexities, the qualifications for the position may seem remote, but ideals must be tempered with reality. Nobody should deny our profession its lofty ideals, but such ideals must be within gunshot of the leadership who must stalk the game. Paragons are few and far between. Those who seek supervisors should be willing to settle for good classroom teachers who have taken the additional training to qualify for proper certification. Supervisors, just as teachers and administrators, have the right to grow on the job.

A supervisor may try to do too much or he may fail to do enough; he may not be in the classrooms enough or he may neglect the routine of his office; he may neglect the individual teacher or he may neglect group meetings; he may encourage too much curriculum revision or he may avoid change altogether. Only experience and a well-developed sense of values will enable him to find a true course between the possible extremes.

Supervision can be objective and yet be human. Supervision can be creative and yet be thorough. It can encourage strengths and yet help with weaknesses. It can be co-operative and yet not shirk responsibilities. It can recognize the importance of individuals and yet retain instructional standards. It can give help and yet not be dictatorial. It can represent a multitude of services and yet protect the teacher against the confusion of overactivity. It can capitalize upon the group process and yet not lose itself in its academic extremities. It can experiment with the new and yet not discredit the good in the old. There need be no trace of awkwardness or false pride, of servility or superiority, with either the supervisor or the supervised.

Supervision does not have a magic touch. Supervision develops the power to do these things only under strong and enlightened leadership. As a force under poor direction it can wreck an instructional program. Poor supervision can be worse than no supervision. Those who enter the field of supervision carry a heavy responsibility; they must not take it lightly. Supervision is and always will be the key to the high instructional standards of America's public schools.

We have tried to give an optimistic picture of instructional leadership and the conditions about it. Too many of our profession would leave the impression that democratic supervision is a fabulous image to be pursued like a mirage across the dry sands of administrative demagoguery and the mucky swamps of instructional indifference. This is not so. It is a reality; it just needs some polishing here and there.

Perhaps we have tried to say in this book: *The teaching profession has changed its beliefs about supervision, but not its hopes.* Supervision is an educational giant, rooted in instructional fertility and nourished on professional hope. The future is bright. Supervision will continue to be many things to the many people whose lives it touches. Perhaps therein will lie its strength. The one who would supervise can find out a lot about it before he begins; but he will find out most about it on the job. It is then that supervision will actually be defined—if ever.

And in closing this account, perhaps the ideal for supervision can best be summarized by recalling an old adage: *No man stands so straight as he who stoops to help a child.*

For Further Consideration

What causes teachers to fear supervision? How can this be overcome? How should a school system evaluate its program of supervision? Should it judge the work of each person in supervisory capacity? Is there any danger in adopting the principle that supervision should satisfy the teacher? What should supervision have in common with preserving the American heritage? What are the major obstacles that prevent supervision from reaching the ideals set up for it?

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